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ABSTRACT

This reading guide is intended to assist elementary teachers in planning, implementing, and evaluating reading programs in order to improve reading instruction. The introduction discusses such topics as the status of reading in society and school, the purpose of reading instruction, and goals of reading instruction. "Organizing for Instruction" discusses the role of the teacher, grouping, and meeting individual needs. "The Reading Program Developmental" looks at readiness, directed reading activity, oral reading, supplementary reading, and recreational reading. "Specific Skills and Techniques for Teaching" looks at letter recognition, word recognition, structural analysis, phonetic analysis, vocabulary development, recall of specific facts, interpreting information, critical reading, reading in the content areas, and study skills. "Testing and Evaluation" discusses available tests, teacher's role in administering tests, interpretation of tests, and application of tests. Professional Development" presents suggested inservice activities and a form for determining inservice needs. And "Materials" lists professional and instructional materials. (WR)

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ELEMENTARY READING GUIDE

by the

READING GUIDE COMMITTEE

THE SCHOOL DISTRICT OF GREENVILLE COUNTY

GREENVILLE, SOUTH CAROLINA

1973 - 1974

CS 001 617

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Preface

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This Reading Guide was developed over a four year period by the committee of classroom teachers and supervisory personnel as listed on the next page. It is the culmination of many hours of work and the cooperation of many people.

The writing of this guide is the result of the expression of the need for such a guide from a large portion of our elementary teachers. Its purpose is to assist them in planning, implementing, and evaluating reading programs in order to improve the instruction of reading at the elementary level.

An effort has been made to provide suggestions for working with students at all levels and many teaching techniques are included to encourage a variety of activities in the instructional program. It is the hope of this committee that the elementary teachers will study this guide carefully and use it in the implementation of an effective reading program which meets the needs of all students within the classroom setting.

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Status Of Reading In Society And School

Researchers in the area of reading have, in their findings, classified the population of the United States as poor readers. It is estimated that 30% may be considered active readers with a large per cent of these content to read materials of poor quality. Girded with these facts, educators are determined to raise both the quality and the quantity of reading in the school population. As a result, Reading Clinics and/or Reading Centers are multiplying rapidly; organizational patterns of schools are being examined; and innovations are becoming more prevalent. Publishers and manufacturers have taken their cue and are prolific in their offerings of books, materials, and hardware.

The School District of Greenville County has had a continuous and deepening awareness of the status of reading, both nationally and within Greenville County. Concurrently, there has been an unsurge in the realization of the importance of reading for human survival. As early as 1960, a Summer Reading Clinic with two centers was organized on the basis of (1) diagnosing to determine individual needs and (2) teaching to meet individual needs. To support this basis, a qualified consultant was secured whose primary responsibility was to give guidance and specialized help to Clinic personnel in testing, planning, and teaching techniques. The present Summer Reading Center is the successor to the Reading Clinic.

Recently, Title I Summer Reading Centers; the Corrective Reading Program (see Appendix A), under a three year sponsorship of the Junior League in cooperation with The School District of Greenville County; and Great Books groups have been organized. More recently, Title I Compensatory

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Reading Labs, Title I Middle School Labs, and Alpha I (see Appendix A), have been organized and functioning within the school district. At present, a reading teacher is available to every elementary school one to three days each week.

Elementary libraries have undergone a period of rapid expansion. Simultaneously, a greater variety of materials, basic books, and hardware have been added.

Purpose of a Reading Guide

Organizational patterns, books, materials, and hardware are only supporting factors of a good reading program. The key to a good reading program continues to be an effective, perceptive teacher with the necessary knowledge to carry out her responsibilities. Instruction is the focal point. For this reason, this guide is written.

The material contained in this guide is presented with two objectives:

1. to give teachers a basic understanding of the reading process
2. to enable them to aid, stimulate, and inspire the children with whom they work in the mastering of the reading process

It is not intended to be all-inclusive or restrictive, but rather to provide a source to which teachers can go for ideas, techniques, knowledge of the policies, philosophy, and goals of The School District of Greenville County. The content is based on the premise that the teaching of reading is a continuum with each stage representing skills and techniques necessary to promote the sequential development of basic reading. Guidance is given in each facet of the total reading program with attention focused on the degree of giftedness of each student. Provision is made for those seeking aid in corrective reading in or out of the classroom. Practical suggestions for the development of skills

and other pertinent information are included in Part III of this guide.

Philosophy

The system of beliefs underlying the teaching of reading reflects the philosophy of The School District of Greenville County. These beliefs are:

1. The classroom climate should be conducive to learning to read--warm, friendly, and inviting.

2. Consideration of materials, methods, and expectations should be geared to the individual child--recognizing his uniqueness, his interests, his capabilities, and his rate of learning.

3. Learning to read is a personal matter directly related to experiences.

4. A child should meet with reading success every day on his level of operation.

5. The child should be helped to understand that learning to read is serious business but reading can be fun.

Description

Reading involves the recognition of printed or written symbols which serve as stimuli for the recall of meanings built up through the reader's past experience.

Reading is a process which we stress throughout the student's entire school career. It is not a simple act. Reading changes from what is primarily considered word recognition, through development of sight and meaning vocabulary and several methods of word attack, through different types and degrees of comprehension to a mature act involving most of the higher mental processes.

Reading can be described in a variety of ways:

1. Reading--A Sensory Process
   The reader reacts visually to the graphic symbols.

2. Reading--A Perceptual Process

   a. We give meaning to what we see, hear, taste, smell

and touch.

b. The reader's reactions to the printed word are determined by the experiences that he has had with those objects or events for which the symbol stands.

3. Reading--A Reflection of Cultural Background

a. Social factors such as education, cultural interests, income level, family stability, and vocational adjustment all affect the child's cultural and language background.

b. Success in school and particularly in reading is a reflection of the child's cultural and language background.

4. Reading--A Skill Development Process

a. Vocabulary Skills

b. Comprehension Skills

c. Study Skills

d. Word Analysis Skills
(1) Phonic
(2) Structural
(3) Configuration
(4) Use of context

5. Reading--A Thinking Process

Reading employs the higher intellectual processes. It involves cognition, memory, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and evaluation.

Purpose Of Reading Instruction

The fundamental purpose of reading instruction is to aid each individual to become as able and as diversified a reader as his capabilities and the instructional time will allow.

"The dear people do not know how long it takes to learn to read. I have been at it all my life and I cannot say that I have reached the goal." Goethe

Goals Of Reading Instruction

1. Maturity in word study

a. Developing word recognition

b. Extending and refining word meanings

c. Building sight vocabulary

2. Maturity in comprehension--the major goal in reading instruction

a. Selecting appropriate meanings for words

b. Grouping words into thought units

c. Sensing sentence meaning and organization

d. Sensing paragraph meaning and organization

e. Understanding the interrelationships among the parts (paragraph, chapter, etc.) of a selection so the whole may be understood

f. Recognizing the types of comprehension
   (1) Factual
   (2) Interrelated reading
   (3) Evaluating reading
   (4) Reflective reading
   (5) Appreciative reading

3. Proficiency in content fields

a. Adjusting reading to demands and characteristics of content fields

b. Coordinating basic study skills and necessary comprehension abilities

4. Basic study skills

a. Locational skills
   (1) Using table of contents, indexes, and card catalogs
   (2) Using general reference material

b. Interpreting maps, graphs, charts and other pictorial material

c. Evaluating and organizing material

5. Capabilities in the communicative art of oral reading

6. Versatility and efficiency

a. Reading many types of materials

b. Reading for many purposes

c. Reading at different rates

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7. Maturity in reading habits, attitudes, interests and tastes

   a. Appreciating books

   b. Stimulating intellectual curiosity

Guiding Principles

1. The reading program is conducted so that reading problems will be prevented rather than permitted to develop.

2. A teacher is to be knowledgeable of the approach used in each basal series.

3. Reading is taught as a complex process involving the entire personalities of children, with consideration of mental, physical, social and emotional growth of pupils.

4. Systematic instruction in reading is provided during scheduled periods. This does not preclude individualized instruction, but means flexibility in the use of materials with provision for diversity in ranges of reading levels, and recognition that some learnings are best done in group situations.

5. Provision is made for continuous growth in habits, skills, abilities and attitudes which will permit efficient reading.

6. Students will be instructed at their own level of instruction regardless of their grade level placement.

7. At all times reading is taught with meaning and understanding and is related to the children's experiences and to other areas of the curriculum. There is constant teaching and applying reading skills in content areas.

8. A reading program provides for extensive, free and independent reading. It promotes interests and tastes that encourage children to become habitual readers of better types of reading materials.

9. There is a continuous evaluation of pupil progress.

PART I

ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION

Role Of The Teacher

Learning to read is the most complex skill that confronts a child when he begins his first year of school. In our present educational system the child is given a relatively short period of time to develop the ability to read independently. Each succeeding school year means the attainment of a higher level of independence in reading skills is expected and even required for minimum to average efficiency in learning in the content areas.

Authorities in teaching reading agree that no one knows how a child learns to read. It is obvious then, that the teacher sets conditions for learning to read that are as varied as the student's stages of maturation. These conditions must be creative, flexible yet controlled, systematic, and sequential.

In setting healthy social-emotional conditions for learning to read and continuous growth in the reading process, the teacher can encourage maximum effort on the part of the individual child and the group. The teacher does this by:

1. Establishing rapport with the individual child and the group.
2. Creating an atmosphere in the classroom which is "expectant" to the extent that children are not threatened with making mistakes or experiencing failure; but instead the children are encouraged to feel free and learn from their mistakes.
3. Developing and using all the sense-modalities in the

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"learning to read" process.

4. Helping the child to set reasonable goals and support his efforts.

5. Accepting each child, his abilities and disabilities, his potential and seeming lack of potential, his creativity and apparent inability to create, and his values, attitudes and interests whether they are classified as average or atypical.

6. Being warm, understanding, and sympathetic; yet responsbile, systematic, and businesslike.

7. Serving as a resource person, stimulate discussion, act as a discussion leader to provide reasonable order and logical pursuit of ideas; in other words create a child-centered classroom with the teacher directing and supporting the reading program.

Grouping

Flexibility is the keynote in grouping. There should be flexibility of methods, materials and pupil placement. Therefore, a child may belong to several groups in a typical school day.

In one classroom, a teacher may group in several different ways for different purposes for varying lengths of time. Effective procedures for grouping are:

1. Achievement:

   The range of reading achievement in a class is an important factor to be considered in grouping.

2. Need:

   Children may be grouped according to their special needs in such areas as word-recognition skills, work-type skills, encouragement of wide reading for recreational purposes, etc.

3. Interest:

   Individual or small group work may be based on the reading interests of students.

4. Research:

   Students may be grouped in research groups in order to locate materials related to studies on science, social studies, or other curricula areas.

Meeting Individual Needs

I. The Slow-Learning Child

A. Description

The slow-learning child is one who tests slightly below average in learning ability, but should not be considered mentally handicapped. From the educational point of view, the term "slow-learner" should be applied to the children who seem to have some difficulty in adjusting to the curriculum of the academic school because of slightly inferior intelligence or learning ability. These slow-learning children happen to be at the lower end of the average range in learning academic subjects and can acquire the subject matter but not to the same extent or with the same facility as the average child.

B. Characteristics

1. Slow-learning children learn at a less rapid rate than the average but not as slowly as the educable mentally retarded.

2. The slow-learner's reasoning ability is poorer than that of the normal child.

3. The slow-learner is consistently below grade level in academic progress.

4. Short attention span seems to typify this group of children.

5. Slow-learners are noticeably below par in both immediate and delayed recall.

6. Slow-learners do not learn incidentally as a rule.

7. Poor work habits and poor motivation to learn characterize slow-learners.

8. Slow-learners respond to immediate goals rather than to delayed ones.

9. The slow-learner has poorly developed language and communication skills.

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10. Slow-learners tend to be less mature socially and emotionally than their bright peers.

11. Slow-learners feel less confident and less adequate than average children.

12. Slow-learners find following directions difficult.

13. Slow-learners are not as curious and creative as their more able peers.

14. Slow-learners are capable of being followers but have limited leadership potentials.

C. Procedures for teaching slow-learning children to read

1. Instruction should begin later than for average children.

2. Instruction should be similar to reading instruction for the average child, but at a slower pace.

3. Slow-learners require more review of the basic words.

4. The slow-learning child must be given more detailed and simplified explanations.

5. Simple techniques should be used.

6. Many concrete illustrations are needed.

7. Reading goals should be relatively short range.

8. The slow-learner requires much rereading before he can grasp the different purposes of what he reads.

9. Extended guidance and experience with the visual and auditory characteristics of words should be given.

10. It is advisable to use much oral reading and oral pre-study in instructing slow-learning children.

11. Slow-learning children should have many activities, such as building models, cutting our pictures, etc.

12. The slow-learning child will profit by being in the same classroom with average and gifted children provided the instruction is adjusted to their special needs.

13. The program for the slow-learning child should be enriched with art and music just as the program for the average and gifted child.

II. The Average Reader

A. Description

The average reader comprises more than 50% of the pupil population. Most basal reading programs are designed to meet the needs of this pupil in the elementary grades. He is the pupil who covers the prescribed grade level program in the alloted span--neither completing the work far in advance of the group nor having to be pushed in order to cover it. The performance within this group will vary depending on pupil potential, motivations, interest, attitudes and teaching practices.

B. Enrichment activities

1. Silent and oral reading.
2. Oral reading by the teacher.
3. Audience reading by competent pupils.
4. Listening to radio and record player. — Audio Visual
5. Seeing and hearing movies. — Audio Visual
6. Free periods of silent reading--using materials of the individual's own selection.
7. Book or reading reports.
8. Dramatization.
9. Choral Speaking and reading.
10. Creative writing and making one's own literature.
11. Memorization--not forced. Informal and individual basis.
12. Literary programs--book riddles, showing pictures, maps and cartoons, homemade movies, music, etc.
13. Mass Media. (television--magazines--newspapers)
14. Art.
15. Charts. (experience charts)

16. Poetry.

17. Listening. (tape recorder)

III. The Gifted Child

A. Description

The gifted child is superior in some ability which makes him an outstanding contributor to the welfare of society and the quality of living in that society. Paul Witty's definition includes not only those with high abstract intelligence, but also those whose performance in any valuable line of human activity is consistently or repeatedly remarkable.

B. Characteristics

1. The gifted child possesses an ability to learn very easily.

2. The gifted show avid curiosity.

3. The gifted child tends to be physically superior.

4. The gifted child shows creativity in many areas.

5. The gifted have a good sense of humor.

6. Gifted children show quick insight into problems and good ability to make generalizations.

7. Children with real ability display greater persistence and attention span.

8. The gifted demonstrate initiative and desire to be of service.

Warning: The gifted have special needs which must be met. The very desirable characteristics of the gifted child may be used in negative ways if he has learned to dislike school and is protesting its sterile environment and lack of challenge.

C. General objectives

1. Develop a genuine love for learning.

2. Broaden basic knowledge and understandings.

3. Inculcate desirable methods of learning which promote

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thinking and sharing.

4. Increase the use of skills.

5. Develop power to work independently, to plan, to execute, and to judge.

6. Encourage initiative and creativity.

7. Stimulate critical thinking.

8. Instill sincere appreciation for others.

D. Suggested Enrichment Activities (adaptable to all levels)

1. Supply children with a wide variety of books and allow them to read.

2. Allow children freedom in selecting books and materials from the media center.

3. Provide time for free reading periods.

4. Make use of radio, television and movies to promote interest in related reading materials.

5. Use storytelling to get children interested in reading desirable books.

6. Read aloud an outstanding chapter or two from books children should know in order to create a well-balanced personal reading program.

7. Extend the basic reading program by introducing related book length stories.

8. Encourage pupils to dramatize stories they read and/or present them as TV productions.

9. Use community resources and bring real authors to the class.

10. Establish a "Story Hour," allowing students to read an interesting story or play to their own class or others. Suitable background music and sound effects could be used.

11. Have pupils make up original crossword puzzles from words in the stories they are reading.

12. Have pupils assist in organizing and maintaining a library corner.

13. Introduce students to a thesaurus and its uses.

14. Encourage the writing of dramatic plays, puppet shows, radio or television broadcasts about books they have read.

15. Stimulate analysis of mass media.

16. Encourage independent research projects.

17. Make use of games, such as charades.

PART II

THE READING PROGRAM

DEVELOPMENTAL

Readiness

I. Definition

Readiness is a stage or period in the child's development when he is ready to learn to read with success and satisfaction. This varies from child to child, and is influenced by all environmental and preschool experiences. Readiness is the sum total of all experiences which the child has had from the time he is born until he is ready to read without undue difficulty.

II. Some Factors Which Influence Readiness

A teacher's active awareness of factors which underlie reading readiness is important if the child is to be adequately prepared for reading instruction and if reading is to be introduced at a time when the child will be able to achieve success. Factors which influence readiness are: (1) Physical factors (2) Mental factors (3) Social and emotional factors (4) Educational factors.

A. Physical factors

1. Vision

Visual defects may affect the child's ability to learn to read or cause such a degree of discomfort that the act of reading produces eye strain and fatigue. Research investigators differ as to the incidence of visual defects in children with reading disability, but if a child's visual efficiency seems to be impaired in any way, it is important that he be referred for an examination of his vision. Teachers should be alert in observing signs of various discomfort in the appearances or

behavior of children. Eleven symptoms have been considered most significant. Such symptoms are:

a. facial contortions
b. book held close to face
c. tense during visual work
d. tilting head
e. head thrust forward
f. body tense while looking at distant objects as blackboards and charts
g. assuming poor sitting positions
h. moving head excessively while reading
i. rubbing eyes frequently
j. tending to avoid close work
k. tending to lose place

These may be symptomatic of other problems but when two to four of these symptoms persist, a child is more likely to need visual care.

2. Hearing

Auditory defects of one sort or another are often the causes of failure to learn to read. Children with inferior auditory capacities, however, do not inevitably become poor readers. The alert teacher will note signs of hearing difficulty in a child's behavior. Such symptoms are:

a. Inattentiveness
b. Signs of fatigue
c. Turning the head
d. Many requests for repetition of directions
e. Frequent misunderstandings

These may be symptomatic of other problems but persistence of any of this behavior suggests the need of a screening test of hearing efficiency.

3. Speech

There appears to be a reciprocal relation between facility in speech and reading. Faulty articulation may directly affect reading by presenting a confusion in the sounds of words to be associated with printed words. A child with faulty speech hears a word one way when spoken by others and another when spoken by himself.

Among the more common speech difficulties attributable to faulty learning are:

a. Poor enunciation
b. Inaccurate pronunciation
c. Immature speech

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4. Health

The healthy child is better prepared to learn than the unhealthy one. Children who suffer from prolonged illness, malnutrition and other equally serious health disturbances have additional burdens with which to cope and are not free to concentrate upon a difficult learning task. Any physical condition which lowers a child's vitality or causes significant absences from school may interfere with the learning process.

5. Motor coordination

Although further evidence is needed, there appears to be some connection between success in reading and good motor coordination. Poor coordination is manifested by awkwardness in walking, running, writing, and athletic activity. Coordination of the eyes is an important part in the act of reading. This calls for very fine coordination of small muscles.

6. Physical maturation

Some researchers have found a small but definite relationship between skeltal development (an index of physical maturation) and reading ability. Some students will mature at a less rapid rate than others. Teachers can profit greatly from knowing details of the pupil's preschool history. If a child has been late in learning to walk and to talk, slow in dentition, and retarded in developing a hand preference he may well prove to be slow in manifesting reading readiness.

7. Dominance

There is not enough conclusive evidence to support the theory that lateral dominance is a factor in reading success; however, children who favor the eye which is on the opposite side from the preferred hand or foot may receive some interference as he tries to perceive word symbols. Teachers should identify the hand preferred by the child for skilled manipulation, as when he draws, points, writes, and uses scissors. The child should be encouraged to use his preferred hand, left or right, so that he may become increasingly dominant.

B. Mental factors

A child's inborn capacity determines to a large degree the amount and type of intelligence he can express. The child needs many experiences to enable him to develop this capacity.

Mental age, which is determined by the child's inborn capacity, has often been considered an important factor in a child's readiness to read. It may not be feasible, however, to set a minimum mental age at which all children will be ready to read. The problem of mental age really resolves itself into this: "How can the teacher adapt materials and methods to suit the differences in mental functioning found in any first grade class?"

Briefly, adjustments to differences in mental capability will be made by:

1. Adjusting the length of the readiness period to the individual.

2. Providing materials to meet the individual levels of readiness.

3. Varying procedures to meet the individual levels of readiness.

C. Social and emotional factors

1. Social readiness

The child's social adjustment is sufficiently adequate to cope with give-and-take situations in the average classroom.

a. He is friendly and courteous toward members of his group.
b. He cooperates in playing games with other children.
c. He shows initiative when working or playing with the group.
d. He assumes responsibility for self and materials.
e. He respects authority.
f. He participates in setting up classroom standards.
g. He can solve a variety of problems encountered in handling objects.
h. He offers help when another child needs it.
i. He finds something worthwhile to do after completing assignments.
j. He has acquired socially acceptable techniques for contributing to group activities.
k. He assumes responsibility for his own behavior.
l. He becomes increasingly self-reliant.

2. Emotional readiness

A child is emotionally mature when he learns to do the thing that needs to be done when it needs to be done whether he wants to or not. The following skills contribute to this development:

a. He possesses a good attitude toward school.
b. He makes home-to-school adjustments easily.
c. He is generally well-adjusted and happy in the classroom.
d. His behavior is generally predictable.
e. He accepts changes and interruptions to daily routine calmly.
f. He does not cry easily.
g. He is willing to assume responsibility.
h. He reacts to a new learning situation with confidence.
i. He is able to consider the rights and feelings of others.

j. He has wide and varied interests.
k. He has developed habits which permit him to work independently.
l. He is able to carry assigned tasks through to completion within a reasonable length of time.
m. He is able to make decisions based on facts.
n. He makes worthwhile contributions to group activities.
o. He is developing self-control in various situations.
p. He is at ease with adults and children with whom he comes in contact.
q. He is able to concentrate for a reasonable length of time.

D. Educational factors

Children entering school have come from six years of environmental experiences that have given them varying degrees of proficiency in abilities that are related to learning in the initial reading program. These include among other things:

1. Experience in listening to people talk
2. A listening vocabulary of several thousand words
3. Skill in using context clues in an oral situation
4. Attitude of demanding meaning
5. Picture interpretation
6. Desire to read

III. Educational Readiness Program

It is the responsibility of the school to provide opportunities for the development of Language facility--speaking and listening, auditory discrimination and visual discrimination. These skills may be developed by various activities, such as using experience charts, adapting instruction to individual learning levels, providing a flexible program and using varied materials.

A. Educational skills

1. Language

a. Speaking

(1) Ability to speak in sentences, using a meaningful and growing vocabulary.
(2) Ability to speak loud enough for others to hear.
(3) Ability to use speech in larger than family groups.
(4) Ability to give name, address, and telephone number clearly.
(5) Ability to express ideas in proper sequence.

(6) Ability to interpret pictures.
(7) Ability to wait his turn to speak.
(8) Ability to participate successfully in discussion groups, sharing and planning periods.
(9) Ability to tell a story in sequence.

b. Listening

(1) Ability to listen and follow directions.
(2) Ability to listen and interpret what is being said.
(3) Ability to listen, to respond and react to what is said.
(4) Ability to listen and be able to grasp main ideas.
(5) Ability to listen with interest to stories, poems, records, etc.
(6) Ability to listen and be able to form visual imagery.
(7) Ability to listen critically.
(8) Ability to listen and develop understanding and appreciation.
(9) Ability to listen and increase span of concentration.
(10) Ability to listen attentively and intelligently to librarian's story hour and TV program.
(11) Ability to listen purposefully.

2. Auditory discrimination

a. Ability to identify sounds from surroundings.
b. Ability to develop a sensitivity to initial and final consonant sounds in words.
c. Ability to detect rhyming words.
d. Ability to hear and reproduce sounds heard.
e. Ability to discriminate between speech sounds in words (example: "I woosh" for "I wish").
f. Ability to distinguish between sound patterns.
g. Ability to distinguish various sounds.

3. Visual discrimination

a. Ability to see likenesses and differences in pictures, objects, shapes, forms, and words.
b. Ability to arrange pictures in sequential order.
c. Ability to notice details.
d. Ability to classify pictures and ideas.
e. Ability to recognize letters of alphabet.
f. Ability to develop left-to-right and top-to-bottom sequence.

B. Educational activities

1. Using experience charts

All children who enter school have had experiences which form a basis for extending their reading skills. It is essential that teachers place major emphasis on activities which

help each child learn to read through and from his own experiences. Most experiences in life have a relationship to the process of reading in that they give meaning to reading.

Experience charts may be used to arouse interest through reading one's own personal experience, increase a speaking, meaningful vocabulary and develop ability to express ideas. Ability to contribute sentences pertaining to the subject, awareness that reading has meaning, awareness of directional sequence and ability to work together are also skills which may be developed from the use of experience charts.

Experience charts may also sharpen sensory activity, help create a desire to read, extend the pupil's experience background as the group discusses experiences, help in the development of sentence sense and provide an opportunity for the child to begin to develop a sight vocabulary.

The simple technique of labeling and helping the child identify the object labeled with its name is also useful in teaching the child to associate meaning with the printed word.

2. Adapting instruction to individual learning levels

A good teacher-pupil relationship in which each child is valued as an important individual and is "accepted" for his own uniqueness and personal worth is the first step. A warm accepting environment full of rich experience will help a child gain acceptance in his group.

Not until a teacher knows the individual needs of pupils, their stages of development, and their growth patterns, will he be able to provide experiences to meet their special needs as they exist in the areas of readiness.

Determining readiness with the aid of readiness tests, conferences with parents, teacher observation, and record of progress, will enable a teacher to provide for individual differences through the use of appropriate experiences and flexible grouping.

At the beginning of the year much time will be spent working with the entire group, giving ample time for pupils to know the teacher and one another. At other times, the teacher will work with small groups with similar maturity and needs in keeping with their stage of readiness.

3. Providing a flexible program

Because of the tremendous individual differences and specific needs among pupils entering first grade, length of the readiness period will vary. Therefore, it is not only necessary for a teacher to have an awareness of the characteristics of the pupil who is ready to read but also an

awareness of the maturity of each child. Once the assessment of a child's readiness is determined, instruction can be designed to overcome the specific weakness.

Careful planning helps maintain a happy classroom atmosphere which contributes to desirable growth. Although the daily schedule is flexible and informal, it needs to be sufficiently regular to give pupils a feeling of security and an opportunity to become accustomed to necessary routine. Children of this age are extremely active and tire easily; therefore, short periods of varied activities are recommended.

It is the responsibility of the teacher to plan a well balanced program of work, rest, and play with enough flexibility to allow for varying needs of individual pupils.

4. Using different modalities of learning

Teachers should be aware of the fact that all children do not learn to read in the same fashion or by the same methods of instruction. Many children learn best by the sight approach while others appear to learn better auditorily. Some do not profit from either of these approaches and need instruction through a third sense--the sense of touch.

An effort should be made to determine the appropriate learning modality for each child and plan his instructional program so that he is able to benefit from the learning experiences.

5. Using varied materials

The teacher who keeps in mind the factors which underlie reading readiness and the desired outcomes along with the levels of the various individuals will be able to show skill in adapting materials to individual needs, interests, and abilities and stimulate each child toward his maximum attainment.

Useful material includes pictures, picture books, story books, manipulative and play materials, such as: puzzles, games, flannel board, magnetic board, bulletin boards, blocks, materials for varied art work, records and record players, teacher-made visuals to promote auditory and visual discrimination, puppets, film strips, and other audio visual materials.

David Elkin states, "Readiness is not a fixed attribute of the child but rather is always relative to our ingenuity in constructing materials appropriate to the child's level of development."

IV. Criteria For Judging Readiness

A. Criteria for judging physical readiness

1. Vision

   a. Does the child squint, rub eyes, hold material too closely or too far from eyes?
   b. Are the results of the eye tests (if any) favorable?

2. Hearing

   a. Does the child respond to questions and simple oral directions?
   b. Is he able to repeat spoken words correctly?
   c. Are the results of hearing tests (if any) in the normal range?

3. Speech

   a. Does he articulate clearly?
   b. Does he speak without gross errors in pronunciation?
   c. Is his speech free of immature speech patterns?

4. Health

   a. Is the child able to work and play for reasonable periods of time without tiring?
   b. Does he appear to be in good health?
   c. Does the pre-school physical examination indicate good health?

5. Motor coordination

   a. Is he able to turn pages of a book with reasonable ease?
   b. Can he bounce a ball?
   c. Can he hold and use crayons with reasonable ease?
   d. Can he use kindergarten scissors?

6. Physical maturation

   a. Does he appear to be average in his physical development?
   b. Did he walk, talk, and cut teeth before, after, or as the normal child?

7. Laterality

   a. Has he established a preferred hand?
   b. Has he developed an awareness of left and right?

B. Criteria for judging mental readiness

1. Does he appear to be mentally alert?

2. Does he seem to profit from his mistakes?

3. Is he curious and eager to learn new things?

4. Does he seem to learn after a reasonable number of repetitions?

5. Does he exhibit an ability to perceive simple cause and effect relationships?

6. Can he transfer what he has learned in one situation to another in which the important elements are the same?

7. Is his memory span sufficient to allow for delayed recall of simple stories, experiences, and directions?

C. Criteria for judging social and emotional readiness

1. Is he friendly and courteous toward members of his group?

2. Does he cooperate with the group in work and play activities?

3. Does he await his turn in playing?

4. Does he show initiative in working and playing with his group?

5. Does he listen without interrupting?

6. Is he interested in what others have to say?

7. Does he take care of his equipment and materials?

8. Does he share materials with others?

9. Does he await his turn when teacher-help is needed?

10. Does he respect authority and property of others?

11. Does he offer help when another child needs it?

12. Does he participate willingly in setting up classroom standards?

13. Is he working independently?

14. Does he find something worthwhile to do after completing his assignments?

15. Has he acquired socially acceptable techniques for contributing to group activities?

16. Does he assume responsibility for his own behavior?

17. Does he put forth necessary effort to learn to read?

18. Does he like school?

19. Has he made acceptable home-to-school adjustment?

20. Has he overcome fearfulness and timidity?

21. Does he seldom cry?

22. Can he accept change in routine quietly and calmly?

23. Can he accept opposition without being emotionally upset?

24. Does he re-act to a new learning situation with confidence?

25. Does he assume responsibility?

26. Does he follow directions and get to work promptly on assignments?

27. Does he work with concentration on a task until it is completed?

28. Is he infantile in manner, behavior and interest?

D. Criteria for judging educational readiness

1. Does he have a desire to read?

2. Has he developed an awareness of sequence in pictures and stories?

3. Is he speaking in sentences?

4. Is there evidence of a growing, meaningful vocabulary?

5. Does he speak loud enough for others to hear?

6. Does he interpret pictures?

7. Are his contributions to discussion groups, planning and sharing periods worthwhile?

8. Does he listen attentively to stories, poems, and records?

9. Has he developed an awareness of left-to-right progression?

10. Can he identify initial consonant sounds?

11. Does he know how to handle a book?

12. Can he detect rhyming words?

13. Does he associate meaning with printed words?

14. Does he see likenesses and differences in objects, pictures, shapes and words?

15. Can he tell the words which begin with the same sound in groups of words named by the teacher?

16. Does he recognize letters of the alphabet?

Directed Reading Activity (Or Lesson)

A reading experience or lesson from a basal book which is led and guided by the teacher is called a directed reading activity.

The objective of the directed reading activity is to help children read with ease, material that heretofore was too difficult for them. The teacher will present material at the child's instructional level and through directed instruction enable the child to read the material independently.

Before beginning a directed reading activity, the teacher must complete her preparation. Below is an outline of teacher preparation and the five basic steps or phases of a directed reading activity.

I. Teacher Preparation

A. Determine possible purposes for the child.

B. Determine means for developing readiness.

C. Determine concepts necessary for comprehension.

D. Determine word analysis skills needed.

E. Evaluate vocabulary and concepts before reading.

F. Determine ways of developing comprehension and word recognition skills.

II. Steps In A Directed Reading Activity (DRA)

A. Preparing for reading (readiness)

B. Reading and discussing

1. Silent reading

2. Discussion

a. Literal comprehension
b. Interpretive thinking

c. Evaluative and creative thinking

C. Teaching reading skills

1. Decoding skills (word attack skills)

2. Comprehension skills

3. Reference and study skills

4. Literary skills

5. Assignment

D. Meeting individual needs

1. Teacher-directed practice

2. Independent practice

E. Applying reading skills (enriching language experiences)

III. Suggestions For Using The Steps In A Directed Reading Activity

A. Preparing for reading

To introduce the story, use the material provided in the teacher's edition for motivating interest and setting the scene. However, feel free to supplement this. Interest can be heightened for the child by:

1. Helping him to see the relationship of a story to a complete unit.

2. Reminding the children of other related stories.

3. Locating the geographical setting, <u>if</u> appropriate to the story.

4. Discussing illustrations to help build concepts.

5. Developing oral control over new words.

6. Setting up a general motive for the reading--one that calls attention to the central theme. Let this be well done, but <u>not over done</u>.

B. Presenting new words

This is only for children who do not already know the words. A pitfall to avoid is drill on new vocabulary. Children need to meet new words in context. If this privilege is not granted, when would

the child put into practice skills that have been taught?

The new words listed in the teacher's edition are only for those who need help. If needed, these words should be presented in context, written on a chart or on the chalkboard. One suggestion is to ask the children to read the sentences to themselves and try to think of a word that makes sense in the sentence and begins with the right sound. Suggest that they use any other letter sounds that they know in the word to make sure what the word is. Let a child who has correctly unlocked the strange word read the entire sentence aloud.

Once the children have learned the method for unlocking new words to the extent that it becomes an involuntary action--as natural as the blinking of the eyes--then discontinue introducing the new words here and let the children meet them in context.

C. Reading and discussing

1. Guided silent reading

Silent reading precedes oral reading. This is the time to find out if the material is on the proper instructional level for the child. Be sure the child can master the words well enough to read the material and understand what he has read.

Silent reading is always done for a definite purpose. Children should read to find out: "why the story has this name," "why Jan's wishes came true," etc.

Encourage the children to let you know if they have trouble with a word. This helps break the habit of skipping over words. It is a good idea for the teacher to have a small notebook as she goes around the circle to make a note of the child's name

and the words he needs help with in order to help him later with specific skills he needs.

After the group has read silently a small portion of the story, discuss this portion before reading silently again. During the discussion, the teacher checks on comprehension. Usually the teacher's edition will have two types of questions--comprehensive and critical thinking. Let this be more than a question and answer period. If a child doesn't know the answer, give him the opportunity to open his book and read the desired information. Oral reading may be done during the discussion period as the children are asked to find and read aloud the portion of the selection needed.

2. Oral reading

You may want to discuss with your reading group some good oral reading practices, such as voice intonation, holding the book properly so voices can be heard, posture, interpretation of punctuation, etc. The group's agreements may then be charted for reference later when the need arises.

Oral reading should be done for a definite purpose--not to see if a child knows all the words (you would have to let each child read the whole story every day)--but for finding answers to a variety of types of questions for oral expression, such as conversation parts, or choosing the part of the story liked best.

Other suggested purposes:

1. Illustrate part of the story.
2. Dramatize a story.
3. Find a sentence which gives the main idea of

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the story.
4. Answer a personal question.
5. Find a descriptive sentence, phrase, word, or paraphrase.

IV. Teaching Reading Skills

Here we give emphasis to phonics, sight vocabulary, prefixes, suffixes, using the context to get meanings, dictionary skills, locating information, use of index and table of contents, inferences, drawing conclusions and many other reading skills. The teacher's editions have good suggestions, which may be adapted to fit individual needs. Seat work and supplementary readers may be used as additional reinforcement materials. (Note the section in this guide in Part III on skills.)

V. Meeting Individual Needs

This step may not be for all pupils. Some individual needs are (or may be) met in group situations. Some children will need individual help and work in basic reading skills. Others who have learned the skills may work independently during this time. Choose exercises that meet the particular need of each child or group of children. It is unnecessary to give a child any exercise that is concerned with something he has already mastered.

Follow-up activities (seatwork) should satisfy the following criteria:

1. The purpose should be understood by the child.
2. The material should be interesting and helpful.
3. The exercise should meet a specific need.
4. The activities should be prepared in terms of the child's independent reading level.
5. The child should understand what is called for and the technique for responding.
6. The results should be carefully appraised with the help of the pupil.

VI. Applying Reading Skills (Enriching Language Experiences)

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Activities in this area should include reading, writing, speaking, and listening experiences and should provide children opportunities to make purposeful and direct applications of the reading skills they have learned. Children should be encouraged to read library books, stories, and many different types of good literature.

Use only activities that fit the needs and abilities of pupils. Select needed activities from the guide (not all of them). The teacher should feel free to originate similar activities of his own.

VII. Summary Of Facts To Remember In a Directed Reading Activity:

1. The teacher's guide should be used regularly.
2. When children are reading on their proper instructional level, they should know at least 95% of the vocabulary and achieve a minimum comprehension score of at least 75%. Symptoms of difficulty such as finger pointing, lip movement, head movement, and sub-vocalization should be absent.
3. When the child does re-reading, he is no longer at his instructional level.
4. The follow-up may be teacher directed, teacher supervised, or independent work.
5. Children are grouped according to their independent level and instructional level. Membership in the groups is not rigid and children are grouped and regrouped according to their needs and interests as well as their abilities.
6. Arrange the group in front of a chalkboard--not facing the light. Place the chairs so that the teacher can move freely to help individual children.
7. The teacher <u>always</u> goes to the child to help.
8. Watch for signs of frustration.
9. A basal reading program is not just a set of books, but rather a sequentially organized method of teaching. It provides the framework through which the reading abilities, skills, and techniques are introduced and around which they are built.
10. If a child has <u>successfully</u> completed a basal book on his instructional level he is ready to move to the next level in the same series and should not be required to read, for instructional purposes, other basal books on that level.

A teacher's checklist for a Directed Reading Activity may be found on page 172 of the Appendix.

<u>Oral Reading</u>

Oral reading should be an integral part of the reading program in every grade. Reasons for reading aloud occur naturally in every modern

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classroom. Throughout the day there are frequent occasions to read aloud in sharing an experience story, in reporting an investigation in science, in sharing a passage from a book, or in clearing up a point in a social studies discussion. Oral reading is a presentation to an audience and requires some preparation; it requires, also, an attentive audience. The aim of good listening is to give the reader thoughtful attention.

I. The three major purposes of oral reading are:

A. Diagnostic and instructional

Detect faulty habits in silent reading such as omission or addition of words, phrasing, volume and flexibility of voice, breath control, fluency, pronunciation and enunciation.

B. Communication tool

Widen speaking vocabulary; strengthen retention; improve speech, comprehension, rhythm, expression, and proper interpretation, induce a feeling of group unity and social relationships.

C. Appreciation

Give an opportunity to learn to appreciate the beauty of language through poetry, dramatizations, plays and stories.

II. Guiding Principles For Effective Teaching Of Oral Reading

A. All oral reading must have a purpose.

B. The reader must have interesting data which he wishes to share with others.

C. The reader must be prepared. Any material to be read orally should first be read silently. Instructions during the actual oral reading situation will usually destroy the value of oral reading.

D. Oral reading should take place only when there is a receptive audience. Above the first grade level of reading, the listeners should never follow in their books.

E. Most children enjoy reading to each other and should be given the opportunity to do so in a meaningful way. The poorest readers often need the greatest number of experiences.

F. Successful experience in oral reading may help to overcome shyness and to give needed self-confidence. "If taught properly,

oral reading may also make a real contribution to personality development by promoting self-confidence and skill in oral communications." (Quoted from Toward Better Reading, by George D. Spache.)

G. The teacher should provide a good model of oral reading. If the teacher reads aloud daily, children will want to read aloud, too. If the teacher sets high standards for this performance, they will do likewise. (see Appendix, page 177)

H. Children should have access to a wide variety of suitable materials for oral reading. (Humorous materials are especially good.)

III. Functional Uses Of Oral Reading

A. To share scarce materials: a library book of which there is only one copy; a newspaper clipping; references in sources such as encyclopedias, a single copy of a text or supplementary book, a magazine article.

B. To broaden interests through sharing: different authorities on the same topic; original papers or creative stories.

C. To carry on classroom or school affairs: an announcement or a committee report; a plan for the group to follow; the minutes of a meeting; a class news bulletin.

D. To settle an argument or clarify a point under discussion: excerpts from source materials that prove or disprove a point.

E. To entertain: selections (the funniest, most exciting, best liked part) from new books; favorite poems; choral speaking; jokes; riddles; captions for cartoons; dramatizations showing how a certain character would talk.

F. To enhance appreciation of selections in which beautiful language is used: descriptive passages; selections rich in colorful words; musical and poetic passages.

G. To develop tastes for material of high literary quality: dramatizing a scene, etc.

H. To meet the needs of children for approval, worthy group membership, or sense of personal worth: telling their own experience stories, reading their own stories from charts or booklets.

I. To clarify understandings in content subjects: report an experience in science; re-examine a problem in mathematics; clear up an idea in social studies; give directions for finding or checking information.

The teacher's guides of the basal readers give many suggestions

regarding functional uses of oral reading. Humorous materials and reading "just for fun" tend to be neglected in the usual classroom, but the teacher should explore the use of these.

IV. Training In Oral Reading

Interpretive oral reading depends upon the same techniques and skills that are used in silent reading. As the child develops silent reading abilities, he prepares himself to [illegible] as well. The silent reading of any selection must pr[illegible]ding, etc. in the primary grades. Among the better ma[illegible] developing oral reading are those that contain passages [illegible] in them. In the reading aloud of his part, the chil[illegible] expressing how the person he is representing would say that.

The teacher who wishe[illegible] children grow in oral reading skills should seek:

A. To develop the students' oral reading behaviors, such as the following:

1. correct pronunciation
2. articulation, so audience can hear
3. phrasing in thought units
4. speed suited to selection
5. natural pitch and tone
6. emphasis and expression
7. proper breathing
8. posture
9. position of book

B. To develop wholesome attitudes about reading aloud and about listening to others read, such as believing that this is:

1. a good way to discover new ideas
2. a good way to share what you like, and interest others in it

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3. a good way to help others

4. a pleasurable experience

C. To help children set high standards for quality of performance

D. To help children develop discrimination in choosing what to read aloud

E. To help children grow in listening skills

Children are most successful in becoming good oral readers when they are aware of the uses of this skill and have opportunities to practice it in a natural classroom situation. An oral reading check-list has been included to enable the teacher to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of her pupils. (see Appendix, page 176)

Not too long ago the regular procedure in an oral reading lesson was to have the children take turns reading aloud, without having read it silently, while the other children followed the reading in their books. There is no value to such a procedure. Some very serious objections, are:

1. Often the reader stumbles through the selection pronouncing many words which the teacher (or pupils) correct. This is a boring procedure which tends to develop a dislike for reading.
2. Oral reading is a slower process than silent reading. When the children at their desks follow the oral reader in their books, the result is an eye fixation on every word as the one who is following waits for the oral reader to pronounce the word. Since one of the essentials of good reading is smooth eye movement, taking in several words with one sweep of the eye, keeping pace with an oral reader then is a deterrent in developing proper eye movement.

V. Effective Techniques For Developing Skill In Oral Reading

A. Individual reading to the teacher while the other children are working independently.

B. Finding and reading passages for specific purposes such as finding answers to questions, the topic sentence, passages to support a point, etc.

C. Audience reading with library books.

D. Dramatizing stories with homemade hand puppets.

E. Reading consecutively in a small group if the members are similar in reading ability.

F. Choral reading is an excellent way to achieve practice in oral reading.

G. Individual diagnosis.

H. Planning and writing together a group experience chart, which is read orally by the group and by individuals.

I. Telling and writing individual experience charts.

J. Using flannelboard cut-outs to tell part of the story while selected portions are read aloud.

K. Having children study the dialogue and act out the scenes, with each child reading a particular character's part and one acting as the narrator.

L. Simulating a radio play with sound effects based on the story from a book.

M. Letting one child act out silently a part of the story just read and the other children locate the action in the story. (One child reads the correct portion aloud to the class)

N. Making a booklet of their favorite group and individual experience stories. (These may be read and reread for practice)

O. Recording on tapes individual presentations so that children may hear their own interpretations of selections.

P. The use of a tape recorder is a way to help children evaluate their oral reading.

Q. Records may be used to present examples of the best in oral reading.

Teacher's guides to the basal readers give many suggestions regarding ways of making oral reading more interesting and using it for specific purposes. In addition, children should have access to a variety of suitable materials for oral reading. There will tend to be less oral reading for each succeeding grade in school, but oral reading should never be eliminated completely in favor of silent reading. Experiences in sharing by oral reading will stimulate a high quality of participation. The desire to improve in oral reading will be

encouraged.

When the children recognize that they want to improve their oral reading in an audience situation, they and the teacher may find it helpful to formulate a chart with questions such as the one listed in the Appendix on page 176.

Supplementary Reading

I. Purpose

The purpose of supplementary reading is to master the skills necessary for reading by reinforcing and extending the skills developed through the basic reading program.

II. Use Of Supplementary Readers

Supplementary Readers, which are considered to be a supplement to the basal books, are not intended to be used for free reading. (Use library books, social studies, science, etc., as free reading materials). Instead, they are intended for instructional purposes--such purposes to be handled differently from basic instruction in the basal books. Within very flexible groupings of pupils, assignments should be made in Supplementary Readers for further practice on skills which have been met in the basal book instruction but not yet mastered.

Much of the work in Supplementary Readers may be introduced by the teacher but carried on away from the teacher (at tables while the teacher is instructing another group). Whatever skill is practiced must be carefully checked by the teacher to prevent development of poor reading habits. Teaching in this manner from Supplementary Readers should greatly facilitate the development of better reading habits.

When Supplementary Readers are misused for free (library-type) reading, you can readily see why many teachers complain that they cannot find fresh material for instructional purposes in the Supplementary

Readers.

Supplementary Readers should be secured at the Independent Reading Level of difficulty for each child. The Independent Reading Level is usually one grade level below the child's Instructional Level. Never use the same level for supplementary material which is used for Directed Reading Activities.

It is expected that Supplementary Readers will be used conscientiously and consistently. This will result in a frequent turnover of readers selected for this use.

III. Use Of Trade Books

Trade books, as well as readers, may be used for reinforcing and extending the skills developed through the basic reading program. Trade books should also be secured at the Independent Reading Level.

IV. Suggested Ways To Use Supplementary Reading

A. In the lower grades, use the vocabulary words to write a story for the children to read. Run off on mimeograph or put on chart.

B. Use large pieces of newsprint and let small children draw something from the story they have read. Encourage each child to talk about the drawing.

C. Supply missing words in the story. The story may be written on the board with a list of suggested words to choose from.

D. Supply the missing sentence in the story. The story may be mimeographed or put on a chart.

E. Tell the story in sequence, letting one child start and another take up, etc.

F. Choose the main ideas in a story.

G. Scramble the main ideas in a story; write them on the board; have the children put them in correct sequence.

H. Use a simple story for outlining.

I. Voice intonation: choose a story with a lot of conversation; read orally the lines of the characters as the children think

the characters would have said them. (You might tape these.)

J. Write another ending for the story.

K. Choose other titles for the story.

L. Make crossword puzzles with vocabulary words for better students in upper grades. Students may exchange puzzles.

M. Write riddles about characters in the books for better students in upper grades. Let others in the group identify the characters.

N. Use the dictionary or the back of the book for dictionary skills, such as: guide words, key words, what word comes before and after vocabulary words, etc.

O. Main topics and sub-topics can be taught from the index of some books, such as the social studies.

Questions as the following may be used to guide the children:

1. What pages give information about railroads in China?

2. On what pages would you look for information about trips of clipper ships?

3. What pages tell about famous bridges?

4. Between what pages is the most told about balloons?

(Social studies, science or health books may be used to supplement the reading program here.)

P. Write a paragraph about the event most interesting to the child.

Q. Let a group make a frieze to represent the story. Let a different child tell about one part represented on the frieze.

R. Tell the story by writing not more than ten sentences.

S. Choose the character you liked best and tell why.

T. "Chinese Reading"--three or four children in a group--(all children in the room are grouped)--read orally to other children in the group. A better reader may be placed in each group to help slower readers.

U. Find out something about the authors of some of the stories.

V. Give a radio play concerning a story read.

W. Put pictures on a scroll to tell the story. Let one child tell

the story as another rolls the pictures; old T. V. cabinet may be used for show box.

X. Do simple drama to illustrate a story.

Y. Supplement the language program with supplementary reading. For example, if you are studying tall tales in language, then read some tall tales in supplementary readers.

Z. To help encourage a balanced reading program, make a "Reading Wheel" for each child in a group and let him fill in the different types of stories between the spokes. As he reads a story, he puts a mark in the space between the spokes. You may not want to use the same type of stories or make as many spokes as the sample has. Adapt the ideas to meet the needs of your children. (see Appendix, page 178)

Recreational Reading

I. Purpose

The main purposes of recreational reading are:

1. to aid the child in developing wide interest in leisure reading.
2. to aid him in developing the enjoyment of an increasingly better quality of reading materials throughout life.

II. Ways To Achieve

A. Supply reading materials on a wide range of interests and abilities (see Interest Inventory in Appendix, pages 187-189).

B. Develop a classroom environment which allows the children to choose books according to individual interests.

C. Provide time for sharing book selections enjoyed by the children.

D. Encourage reading.

1. Provide attractive wall charts, bulletin boards and displays.

2. Provide periods for free time.

3. Provide an attractive reading center.

E. Read aloud good selections to the class.

Most reading specialists agree that the teacher who reads aloud to the class becomes a better reading teacher. Storytime each day is a time for closeness, enrichment, and memory building that can be recalled many years later.

A list of suggested "Read-Aloud" titles has been found by some of our teachers to be successful. The grade level groupings are only guidelines as each class may vary in degrees of maturity and areas of interests (see Appendix pages 179-186).

PART III

SPECIFIC SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING

This part of the guide deals with skills and techniques for developing competency in reading. Specific suggestions for developing letter recognition, word recognition skills, vocabulary, comprehension, reading in the content fields and basic study skills are included. It is recommended that children be taught to generalize from examples rather than be required to memorize rules. (See Appendix, page 218)

DEVELOPING READING SKILLS

Letter Recognition--Visual Discrimination

Many studies show that knowledge of the names of the letters of the alphabet may be one of the best ways to determine a child's readiness for reading. A child needs to discriminate each letter visually from any other. A child can learn to discriminate between those letters with gross differences, such as C and R, easier than those requiring fine visual discrimination such as H and N.

The following techniques, in part from Dr. Emerald Dechant's book "Improving the Teaching of Reading," may be helpful in teaching the names of the letters.

1. Specific letters in a child's name can be used to begin instruction.
2. Teach the name of only a few letters at a time.
3. Identify each letter with a key word or child's name: B with Betty, M with Mike, d with dog.
4. Let each child trace specific letters being studied (the letter

could be written on the chalkboard and the child could trace over it and erase it with one finger).

5. Use ABC books, letter cards and picture dictionaries to aid in letter recognition instruction.
6. Teach the child that each letter has several forms: manuscript, such as the teacher uses in writing on the board; printed, such as found in books; and upper and lower case. A, a, and ɑ are all different ways of writing the same letter.

I. Skill: Listening For Rhyme In Context

Technique:

Have the students listen and select the words that rhyme.

Little Robin Redbreast sat upon a rail.
Niddle, naddle went his head,
Wiggle-waggle went his tail.

Ask the students to add the second rhyming word.

Sea shell, sea shell,
The tales you _____
I like you so well.
You have me in your _____.

Hey, hey, whatta ya say!
Push that ball the other _____:

Before reading a jingle, give pupils a word, have them listen for words in the jingle that rhyme with that word.

Raindrops falling all around,
Making puddles on the _____.

Once there was a snowman
Stood outside the door
Thought he'd like to come inside
And run around the _____.

Have students make their own rhymes by the use of words that rhyme with their names.

My name is Tom
Can you guess where I'm _ _____ _?

My name is Fay
Get out of my _____.

Have students say the word that does not rhyme with several words given by the teacher.

boy, toy, joy, noise

ball, call, wall, toy

Prepare a set of picture cards showing pictures of rhyming words.

shore, store, lawn mower

train, rain, plane

Ask the students to give a word that rhymes with a given word.

pine, shine, mine (vine)

stop, mop, hop (shop)

Students may supply rhyming words.

List some words that rhyme with:

stamp, ship, bee

dish, chair, man

Have children supply rhymes in riddles.

What word rhymes with fox?
It is made from wood, pasteboard, etc.

What word rhymes with soil?
It is used in cars, machinery, cooking, etc.

II. Listening For Consonant Sounds

A. Sounds in the initial position

Circle words that begin like the one underlined.

<u>boy</u> - bird, room, toy, boat, body, gutter
<u>kite</u> - cow, see, kiss, come, first, kick, do
<u>map</u> - grow, meat, cat, match, money, happy
<u>tire</u> - we, point, tell, small, talk, give, Tom

Underline the words in the poem that begin like

<u>some</u>

Soup and Soap
Sound much the same,
and yet I hope
You don't eat soap!

<u>fun</u>

In my family there are four,
We feel that four are fine,
But if we had a chance for more
We could find room for nine!

B. Sounds in the final position

Underline the words in the sentences that end like

hat

Put the pot on the stove.
It is too hot in here.
Steve got wet in the rain.
Please turn out the light.

leaf

The leaf fell on my roof.
He has been deaf most of his life.
"Woof--woof," said the dog.
The loaf of bread is half gone.

Circle the words that end like the one underlined.

ball - that, fall, lemon, Paul, hall, black
sheep - ship, lion, rope, school, hope, tape
mad - ride, table, mouse, made, green, red, blue
rug - twig, side, lamp, frog, rag, dog, bicycle

C. Sounds in the medial position

Close your eyes and when you hear the sound that "L" makes in middle of a word, raise your hand.

hello, apple, grass, silly, yellow, sailor, popcorn, table, hilly, orange, falling, olive

Each time you hear the sound that "L" makes in the middle of a word, drop a button into the jar.

Silly Sally

Silly Sally is falling down
Because the road is hilly,
She's falling and she's upside down,
Isn't Sally silly?

Nelly

Nelly went to all the shops
To buy some things for Alan
She got two dozen lollypops
And ice cream by the gallon.

D. Consonant blends

blends - bl, fl, gl, kl, pl, sl, br, gr, kr, lr, tr, sk, sm, sn, sp, st, sw, skr, spr, str, spl, kw, tw, sw.

Close your eyes and raise both hands when you hear a word that begins like fly.

flour, corn flake, fluff, flip, banana, flat, flowers, glass, float, flounce, florist, coat.

Draw a line under each word that begins like flap.

Florist

I went to the florist
To get me some flowers,
And when I got there
I waited for hours.
The florist was busy,
He was in a tizzy,
His shop was just flooded with flowers.

Flakes of Snow

Flakes of Snow
Fall through the night,
They float in my play yard
In fluffy drifts of white.

E. Digraphs (two letters with a single sound)

Digraphs: sh, ch, ng, nk, th, th (voiced), wh, ph, ck.

Thinking activities:

What word with a "sh" sound at the beginning or end do you think of when I say:

to close? (shut)
another word for store? (shop)
a sailing vessel? (ship)
a plate? (dish)
your mother may do this to potatoes? (mash)

As I say the following sentences, I will leave out one word. Think of an "ng" word that will fit in this blank to complete the sentence.

Mother said, "(Hang) up your coat."
She (rang) the bell.
The (King) had a big castle.
She (sang) a lullaby to the baby.

Listening activities:

Listen for and say the "nk" words as I say the following sentences:

I have a bank
My hat is pink.
Two dishes are in the sink.
I can wink.

Close your eyes and listen while I say a pair of words. Only one of these words ends with the "ng" sound. Repeat the word that ends in "ng".

king - ran
sung - ham
gone - ring
kin - ring
sun - hang
gong - rim

Close your eyes and listen while I say a group of words. Most of the words begin with the "wh" sound. Raise your hand when you hear a word that does not begin with the "wh" sound.

whip	what	white
while	where	help
whether	witch	whirl
his	whatever	hen

III. Hearing Long And Short Vowels

A. Vowels in initial position

When working with letter sounds, it is suggested that the pupil be guided into discovering the rules after working with many examples.

Find words from this list which have the same vowel sound as the word at the beginning:

a as in at - age, am, art, able, air

e as in eat - egg, even, each, end, eagle

i as in it - if, itch, ice, ill, island

o as in oak - odd. old, omit, of, open

u as in up - ugle, use, us, utter, usual

Say the word. Hear the short vowel sounds. Mark the short vowel in the words below.

A a

ant, and, ax, at, Ann, Andy

Say the words. Draw a circle around the words which begin with

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the short a sound.

on at it am Ann us as did ax odd add and Alex Bob up

Say the words. Hear the long vowel sound. Mark the long vowel in the words below:

A a

age angel acorn ape April apron

Say the words. Draw a circle around the words which begin with the short e sound.

E e

end egg at echo add else and Edward edge Emma if Eskimo elm elf Ellen

Say the words. Hear the long vowel sound. Mark the long vowel in the words below.

E e

each eager ear equal eve even

Say the words. Draw a circle around the words which begin with the short i sound.

I i

Indian into igloo it alley if itch idiot ill invite enter in Isabelle illness emerald indeed ink imp inches am inform elevator invent

Say the words. Hear the long vowel sound. Mark the long vowel in the words below:

I i

ice idea iron item ivory

Say the words. Draw a circle around the words which begin with the short o sound.

O o

on odd add as opera Alice Otto Oscar Olga as if otter and ox

Say the words. Hear the long vowel sound. Mark the long vowel in the words below:

O o

oak obey ocean old only open over own

Say the words. Draw a circle around the words which begin with the short u sound.

U u

us untie as if ugly up under on upper usher umpire imp umbrella odd uncle

Say the words. Hear the long vowel sound. Mark the long vowel in the words below:

U u

uniform union use usual

B. Medial vowels

In many words, two vowels come together. Often the first says its own name and the second is silent.

Write each word. Say it softly to yourself. Draw a line through every vowel that is silent.

bean straight head coat cream omit

Sometimes the letter r comes after a vowel in a word. Often the r after a vowel gives the vowel a sound that is not a long or short sound.

start corn her turkey girl

Write each word. Say each word softly to yourself. Draw a circle around the vowel and the r that comes after it.

cart store burn dirt hard shirt form yard

Long i (dime)

If there are two vowels in a word, one of which is final e, usually the first vowel in a word has a long sound and the final e is silent.

Write words from the list to complete the sentences. The words you write must have the long i sound.

chills find dries mild dim climb fine silk time sign while trip fill drive tried

The wind _____ the clothes.
I will wait _____ you go to the store.

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The Indians say that this will be a _____ winter.
Bob tried to _____ the steep hill.
We will _____ around the lake.
There is a big _____ at the end of the road.
It is _____ for us to go home.
Fred _____ to catch his kitten.

Some of the words have the long o sound. Some have the short o sound. Write the words. Say them softly to yourself. If the o has a long sound make a long mark over it like this (-). If it has a short sound make a short mark over it like this (⌣).

soldier stop go spot not both log box cold
home rock over fox

Some of the words have the long e sound. Write the words. Say them softly to yourself. If the e has a long sound, make a long mark over it like this (-). If the e has a short sound, make a short mark over it like this (⌣). Do not put anything over the final e.

easy get these egg best people well bed eagle
please west leave pet eat each red

Write the answer to each riddle. The lines after the riddle show how many letters there should be in each answer. Each answer must have a long a sound and a final e, as in same, lace, gave. Put a macron over the long a in each word that you write.

People do it on ice. _ _ _ _ _ _
Birds may be kept in it. _ _ _ _ _ _
Father uses it to gather leaves. _ _ _ _ _ _
A man may carry it when he walks. _ _ _ _ _ _
It is part of your head. _ _ _ _ _
It is the opposite of wild. _ _ _ _ _
It is part of a book. _ _ _ _ _
People sometimes swim in it. _ _ _ _ _
Men use it to dig. _ _ _ _ _
It is the name of a fruit. _ _ _ _ _ _
It is part of a fence. _ _ _ _
We eat it at a birthday party. _ _ _ _ _
Children like to do it in water. _ _ _ _ _
It is part of a knife. _ _ _ _ _ _
The flag may do it when the wind blows. _ _ _ _ _

Some of the words have the long u sound. Some have the short u sound. Write the words. Say them softly to yourself. If the u has a long sound, make a long mark over it like this (-). If the u has the short sound, make a short mark over it like this (⌣).

but up under mule pump tune fern rub puff sent
Hudson June much bug

Some of the words have the long i sound. Some have the short i

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sound. Write the words. Say them softly to yourself. If the i has a short sound, make a short mark over it like this (˘).

if find like big did night if time pick with fire high will

Long i.

high light fight

In each word above, put a macron over the vowel that has long i sound. When the vowel i is followed by gh, the i is long and the gh is silent.

fly cry sky

In each word above, put a macron over the vowel that has long i sound. When the vowel y is the only vowel in the word and comes at the end of the word, it has the long i sound.

To complete each sentence use a word from this list.

might	right	dry	sly
flight	try	light	night
sky	tight	fry	sight

The airplane is ready to make a _____.
The sun will _____ the grass.
Tom said, "This coat is too _____ for me."
We see the stars at _____.
Jean said, "I will _____ to spell the word."
This is the _____ way to our house.
The car was out of _____ after it went over the hill.
Mother will _____ some fish.
There are few clouds in the _____.

Vowels followed by l and w.

The vowel a in a word does not have a long sound or a short sound when followed by l or w. It has the sound that you hear in the words ball or claw.

Choose one of these words for each sentence

claw	stall	draw	fall
small	thaw	shawl	hawk
crawled	call	halls	lawn

The horse is in a _____ in the barn.
The sun will _____ the snow.
We have long _____ in out school.
Ruth likes to _____ pictures.
A snake _____ into our garden.
The grass is very green on our _____.

When a word ends in a consonant, the vowel just before it has a short sound. If you add an e to the word, making a new word, the vowel before the consonant changes to a long sound. You do not hear the final e.

Example: măd/ mād̄e căn/ cān̄e

Say each word softly to yourself. Write each word. If the vowel has a long sound, make a mark over it like this (-). If it has a short sound, make a mark over it like this (⌣). Do not put anything over the final e.

rid ride not note plan plane use us

Vowel a

1. late: if there are two vowels in a word, one of which is final e, usually the first vowel has a long sound and the final e is silent.
2. sail, day: if there are two vowels together in a word, the first vowel usually has a long sound and the second vowel is silent.
3. straw: of the vowel a in a word is followed by w, the a does not have a long sound or a short sound.
4. wall: if the vowel a in a word is followed by l, the a does not have a long or a short sound.

After each word, write the number of the rule that helps you to pronounce the word.

brave	clay	skate	flame	plain
draw	gray	pail	cane	spray
main	wade	thaw	place	small
tall	claw	fail	hall	claim
state	taste	play	stray	
stall	sway	gain	spade	
gain	cave	crawl	waste	

Find words in the following list which have a long e sound:

be	learn	bet
set	she	bide
late	Pete	beg
wear	eve	zebra

Find words in the following list which have the long o sound, as in code:

hose	droop	most	hoe
smoke	cook	ghost	Joe
vowel	boat	goon	oil
pool	cold	bolt	point

Circle the pairs of words which have the same vowel sound.

rat, rate	grow, snow	grew, threw	same, came
bed, fed	sleep, keep	that, hat	car, care
soon, moon	mat, mate	brother, mother	them, then

Some of the words have the long a sound. Some have the short a sound. Write the words. Say them softly to yourself. If the a has a long sound, make a long mark over it like this (-). If the a has a short sound, make a short mark over it like this (⌣).

bake	glad	mad
act	date	tray
can	sat	jam
rake	happy	name
ate	age	race
pan	bait	map

Short a.

Write short a words to complete the sentences.

Mother put on her _____. apron, glove, hat
Don's dog was _____ when Don went away. sack, brace, sad
Ruth put the candy in a _____. hat, bag, paper
I have _____a party. save, planned, back
Father _____ down on the bed. lay, slap, sat
There was a _____ in the pasture. hay, lamb, fat
We saw a big _____at the top of the pole. nail, stand, flag
The boys like to _____. race, camp, hand

Write short a words to complete the sentences.

land	rang	drags	gather
crack	travel	stamp	stack
cabin	flat	track	back

I will put a _____on the letter.
There is a _____of hay near the barn.
The boat will _____near the park.
We always _____in the summer.
May fell _____on the ground.
Ned tried to _____that nut.
Ted always _____ things behind him.
The man lives in a small _____.
The bell _____ early this morning.
The train ran off the _____.
We _____apples from our trees.
Ned went _____ to school to get his book.

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Long a.

Say each word below. Listen to the vowel sound. If the word has a long a sound, write the word.

cake	black	train	gray	nail	pan
land	band	clap	wave	hands	
safe	face	candy	bank	stay	

IV. Hearing Word Variants

A. Endings attached to a known word.
(new, newer, newest)

Complete each sentence by adding the er or est to each root word.

Our cabin is _____ to the lake than your cabin. (near)
The Alps are the _____ mountains in Switzerland. (high)
Mary is two years _____ than Jane. (old)
I am the _____ of the three girls. (tall)

The endings er and est mean "more" and "most." Write new words by adding er and est to the root words below.

short	_____	_____
hard	_____	_____
soon	_____	_____
fine	_____	_____
tall	_____	_____
long	_____	_____

Look at each word. Add the ending given and write the new word. After the word, write "more" or "most" to show the meaning.

cold + er	slow + est	high + er
dark + est	loud + est	long + est
small + er	short + est	strong + est
poor + est	quiet + er	fast + er

B. The addition of endings such as s, es, ed, ing, ly.

This exercise reviews the inflectional endings s, es, ing, and er and est of comparison by focusing attention on their functions. Write the word basket and have it pronounced. Then write baskets beside basket; have baskets pronounced and the ending identified. Next write these sentences.

Put the leaves in one _____.
Put the leaves in two _____.

Pupils decide which word to use. Other sentences like the following are then used:

agree agrees

He _____ with our idea.
I _____ with your idea.

pretend pretending

The child was _____ that he was a pilot.
Little children often _____ to be grown-up.

cold colder coldest

It is _____ now than it was.
It is very _____ today.
This is the _____ day we have had.

er est

To complete each sentence add the ending er or est to each root word.

My pencil is _____ than your pencil. (long)
The birds in that cage are the _____ birds I have ever seen. (small)
This is the _____ mountain in our country. (high)
These flowers are _____ than those flowers. (fresh)
That is the _____ train I have ever seen. (fast)
Bob is four years _____ than I am. (old)

Each word is a base word. Add the ending given to make a new word. Write the new word.

soft + ly	hard + er
end + ing	jump + ed
give + s	light + ly
great + est	hunt + er
final + ly	grow + ing
leap + ing	bad + ly

"Name" is a base word ending in e. When ing is added to a word ending in e, the e is usually dropped.

Each word is a base word ending in e. Add the given ending to make a new word. Write the word.

take + ing	trade + ing
please + ing	care + ing
write + ing	use + ing

Each word is a base word. Add the endings given to make a new word. Write the new word.

close + s	crawl + ed
carrying + ing	near + ly
real + ly	spring + ing
take + n	suit + ed

hard + ly	great + er
light + er	slow + ly
catch + er	beat + er

Take it away: prepare cards on which known words have endings such as s, es, ed, ing, ly, n, y and er. Place the pack face down in the center of the table. The first player turns the top card, names the word, then covers the endings and names the base word. If correct, the players say "Take it away" and he keeps the card. If incorrect, he must place it at the bottom of the pack in the center of the table.

V. Recognizing Syllables

A. One-syllable words

To find the number of syllables in a word, count the vowels in the word. Each syllable must have a vowel sound in it. Double vowels with a single sound are counted as one, and the silent e at the end of the word is not counted.

Examples: rain, dime

When two vowels are together and have a single sound, they make but one syllable.

Examples: toad, bait, neat

Pattern: CVVC

Display pictures of one-syllable words and have pupils identify each

cat	toy
boy	book
hen	girl

B. Two-syllable words

The compound word has the same number of syllables as the two words from which it was made.

Examples:	suitcase	steamship
	daylight	haircut

When a double consonant stands between two vowels, the word is usually divided between the two consonants.

Examples: let ter
gal ley
lad der

Pattern: CVC/CVC

When two unlike consonants stand between two vowels, the first

consonant usually goes with the first vowel, and the second consonant with the second vowel.

Examples: can dy
slen der
sen tence

Pattern: VC/CV

When only one consonant stands between two vowels, the consonant usually goes with the second vowel.

Examples: a gain
e lect
pa per
fe ver

Pattern: V/CV

When a word ends in le preceded by a consonant, the consonant usually begins the final syllable.

Examples: daz zle
bri dle
sim ple
sta ble

When ed comes at the end of a word, it is a separate syllable when it is preceded by t or d.

Example: wait ed

Unless the ed comes after t or d, it is sounded with the syllable before it and it is not counted as a separate syllable.

Example: walked
jumped
danced

If the first vowel in the syllable is followed by a single consonant and the vowel has a long sound, the consonant is included in the next syllable.

Examples: gro cer
ho tel
tu lip

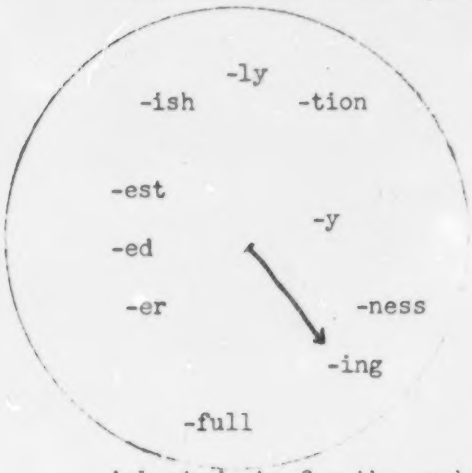
Pattern: CV/CVC

Prefixes and suffixes are usually syllables.

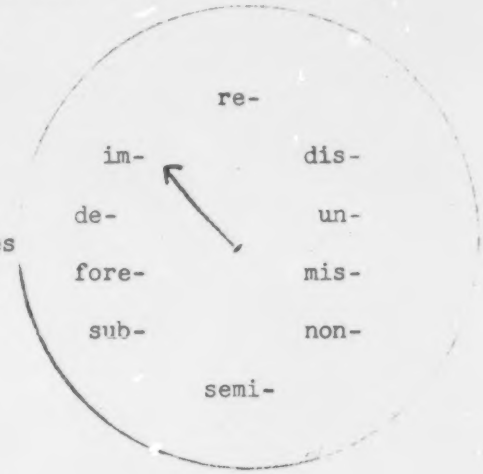
Examples: un do
re gain
un seen
help ful
fear less
greet ing

Around it goes

Make a large wheel from tagboard. Print word endings along rim of wheel. As player spins the wheel he must give a word what ends with suffix at which spinner stops.



Adaption: Use prefixes instead of suffixes.



Ask students for the number of parts they hear in each of the following words:

happen, program, reading between

Do the same for:

develop, syllable, banana, woodpecker, transportation, development, invitation

Have a student beat a drum as he hears each syllable.

Have pupils tap, clap, or make any other indication.

Have students say words to class and let the pupils indicate the number of syllables.

Syllable detectives

A number of cards (2" x 2") with a word on one side and the same word divided into syllables on the back as in the examples:

jacket	jack et
movable	mov a ble

The cards are placed in a pile in the center of the table, the front side up. One player starts by taking the top card and telling where it is divided into syllables. He then looks at the back. If he is correct, he keeps the card and the player to his left gets to play. If he misses he puts the card on the

bottom of the pile and the player on the left gets to play. The player on his left gets to play. The person with the greatest number of cards after all have been taken from the center pile is the winner.

VI. Listening For Accent

An accented syllable is one that is spoken louder and more forcefully than the other syllable.

Examples: deep' est
sup pose'
mid' dle
speed' ing

A single vowel letter followed by one consonant letter may be a clue to a long vowel sound.

Examples: e' ven
fa' vor
o' ver

In multisyllabic words the first or second syllable is accented.

Examples: re me' di al
mo' ment

Pronounce a word such as broken (bro' ken) in a natural tone of voice. Say "Did you notice that the first syllable is stressed and that the second syllable is cut off short? The stressed syllable is called the accented syllable. What syllable is accented in begin?" Follow by pronouncing different words to note accent. (The dictionary is used as a criterion for checking.)

Word Recognition Skills--Visual Discrimination

Gross visual discrimination precedes fine visual discrimination. Exercises involving matching of like pictures and designs are followed by those that develop skills in contrasting and comparing.

Fine visual discrimination includes size, color, shape, position, and internal detail.

I. Gross Visual Discrimination

A. Noticing likenesses and differences

Purpose: to provide practice in visual discrimination

Players: one

Materials: two sets of cards containing several pairs of cards of like design.

Directions: sort the cards into two bundles with one card of each pair in each bundle. One bundle of cards is spread face up on the table so that each card can be seen. The second bundle of cards is placed in one pile face down on the table. The child turns up one card from this pile at a time and matches it with an up-turned card.

Adaptations: one set of cards could be placed on the chalk rail, the second set passed to a pair of children. They, in turn, could place their cards by matching card on the chalk rail.

Cautions: if played by an individual child, the cards should be checked by the teacher before another child is allowed to play.

B. Comparing and contrasting

"How are they different?" game

Present two identical pictures. Have children point out similarities. Next, present two pictures which are not identical and point out the differences.

II. Fine Visual Discrimination

A. Observing size

The familiar story of "The Three Bears" may be used. Have the children study the pictures of bowls, chairs, and beds of different sizes and pick out the things belonging to Baby Bear, Mother Bear, and Father Bear.

B. Observing color

Let all the children wearing blue skip. Let all the children wearing red hop. Continue with other colors and similar activities.

C. Observing shape

Attention should be called to the basic forms such as circles, squares, triangles, rectangles, ovals and diamonds. Have large forms, in simple outline, mounted on oak tag. Let children trace the shape with their finger and then reproduce it on paper. Encourage children to name as many objects as they can which have a certain shape. Have them look for shapes in pictures.

D. Observing positions

Objects which are alike may be placed in different positions.

Have the children select the one which is "up", down", "at the bottom", "at the top", etc.

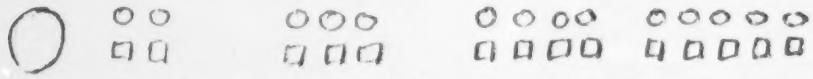
E. Observing internal details

Prepare two identical objects, but have one detail different. Have the children find the thing which is different.

Word Recognition Skills--Motor Coordination

I. Developing Left-To-Right Eye Movements

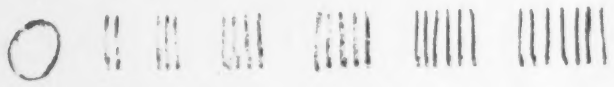
The teacher gives the children sheets of paper that have a green margin at the left and clusters of circles, or squares, or other shaped objects drawn to the right of this margin.



The teacher directs the children always to start at the green margin and put a dot in each circle or in each square. Varied directions may be given; dots can be put in squares, crosses in rectangles, etc.

Line game

A variation of the preceding device may be used. Sheets of paper with vertical lines arranged in groups of varying number are given to the children.



The children are asked to start at the green margin at the left and draw a horizontal line through the center of each cluster of lines, making sure their lines do not extend beyond the outside vertical lines. In illustration, work from left to right.

II. Developing Eye-Hand Coordination

Ask pupils to:

Put together hook and eye, picture puzzles, peg boards, blocks, design boards, jig-saw puzzles, pop-beads.

Use tinker toys, clay, sewing cards or boards, scissors.

Throw and catch a ball.

III. Inferring Pronunciation And Meaning From Pictures Or Illustrations

Have children name objects in the picture. Make a sentence and leave out the name of one of the objects. Have children suggest the name of one or more articles that would fit in the sentence and make sense.

Example pictures: ball, cup, wagon

Sentence: Sam likes to play with his new _____.

(Ball or wagon could be used. Why? Because they make sense. Cup, could not. Why? It doesn't make sense.)

Paste pictures in one column and manuscript names of objects in the second column. Have children draw a line from the picture of the object to the name of the object.

Word Recognition Skills--Structural Analysis

I. Identifying Root Words

A root word is the base word from which a larger word is made.

Request pupils to underline the root word in each of the following:

reading	golden	seventh
rebuild	prepay	distrust
sketches	sadly	unfold

II. Learning Prefixes

A prefix is a syllable that is placed in front of a root word in order to change its meaning.

Common prefixes:

ab	from	en	in	pre	before
be	by, about	ex	out of, from	re	back
com	with	im	not	sub	under, inferior
con	together	in	in or not	trans	across
de	from	inter	between	un	not
dis	opposite of	mis	wrong		

Have pupils add one of the common prefixes to each of these words and then write the meaning of the word.

disloyal - not loyal
contract - draw together
___pact
___pay
___marine
___view

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___true
__possible

III. Learning Suffixes

A suffix is a syllable that is added at the end of a root word to change its form or to add to its meaning.

Common suffixes:

ous	full of	less	without
or	one who	full	full of
ist	one who	ty	manner
ness	state of being	er	that which or one who
al	belonging to	tion	state of or result of

Give pupils a list of root words and ask them to add suffixes and meanings.

poisonous
care____
hope___
beauty____

Ask pupils to underline each prefix and circle each suffix in the following words:

distasteful	unkindly
resentful	unfavorable
adjustable	disagreeable
interviewing	discharging
distrustful	transportation
insufferable	discouragement

IV. Recognizing Syllables

A syllable can have only one vowel sound. When two consonants are between two vowels, a syllable division is usually made between the consonants.

Example:

fel-low, prob-lem

Draw a line between the syllables in each word:

cherry	correct	derby
assist	madly	alley
employ	chatter	village

When a single consonant appears betweem two vowels, that consonant is usually in the same syllable following it.

Example: ro-tate, se-lect

Draw a line between the syllables in these words:

twilight	nation
declare	vapor
demand	nature

When two consonants come between two vowels, the syllable division is usually between the two consonants.

Example:

cin-der, can-dy

When a word ends in le and the l is preceded by a consonant, this consonant usually begins the last syllable.

Example:

ma-ple, stum-ble

Write the following words so they are divided in syllables:

gentle _____	bundle _____
fable _____	twinkle _____
rumble _____	handle _____

If both letters in ed are sounded, it is a separate syllable. Both letters are sounded when t and d come before ed.

Example:

trust-ed, sand-ed

When ed represents the sound of t or d, it is not a separate syllable.

Example:

jumped, planned

In front of each word below write yes if ed is a separate syllable. Write no if it is not.

_____ soared	_____ tended
_____ explained	_____ invented
_____ decided	_____ enjoyed
_____ turned	_____ roared

V. Using Hyphens

Sometimes it is necessary to divide a word at the end of a line. The word is divided between syllables and a hyphen is placed at the end of the line to show that a division has been made. The remainder of the word is

written on the next line.

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Word Recognition Skills--Phonetic Analysis

Phonetic Analysis--Analyzing a word into sound units as an aid to pronunciation.

Phonetic Word--A word that can be pronounced by using phonetic analysis.

Phonetics- Science dealing with speech sounds and the art of pronunciation.

Phonics--Simplified phonetics for teaching reading.

Digraph--Two letters used together to spell a single sound.
Example: Church, peel

Diphthong--A vowel sound made up of two identifiable vowel sounds in immediate sequence and pronounced in one syllable.
Example: boy, house

Phonetic analysis is only one of several methods of teaching word recognition. It involves both auditory and visual discrimination, blending of sounds, and contextual application. Phonetic analysis should be used in conjunction with other word recognition skills, such as contextual clues and structural analysis.

I. Recognizing Consonant Sounds

A. Initial consonant sounds

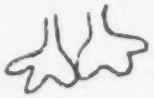
List words on the board. Have pupils pronounce them and circle the letter for the beginning sound.

List words on the board, then ask pupils to add a consonant at the beginning to change the word.

Example: ate to late
all to ball
owl to howl

Write sentences on the board. Give students two words from which to choose to complete the sentences. Make the two choices alike except for their initial consonants. Draw a picture "clue" for the appropriate word.

Example: A duck has big (beet, feet).



A (dish, fish) likes to swim.

Divide the blackboard into squares. In each square draw an object whose name contains the letter or letters for one of the sounds studied in the phonics class. Write in each square the name of the object pictured, omitting the letters which give the sounds being stressed in the lesson.

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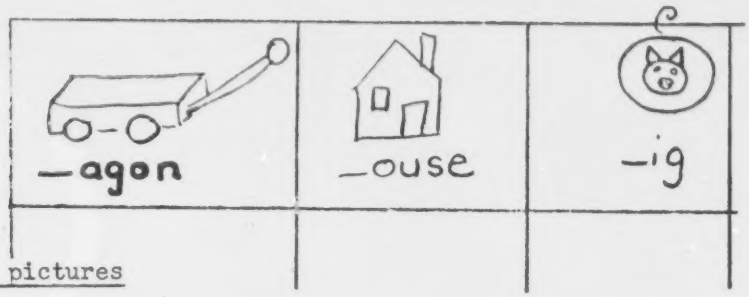
Example:



Sound pictures

Divide paper into squares. In each square, write a different letter. Draw something in each square that begins with that sound.

B. Final consonant sounds

Let different pupils underline the word in each group that ends with a consonant.

cannot	Martha	cake
echo	car	loop
take	desk	lake

Pronounce these words and ask pupils to write the letter that makes the sound they hear at the end of the word.

lod	big	slab
felt	best	farm
his	talk	pen

C. Medial consonant sounds

Supply pupils with a list of words. Ask them to place an x in the column to indicate the position of the consonant sound.

	Beginning	Middle	End
elm		x	x
go	x		
alley		x	
away		x	
even		x	x

D. Consonant blends

Sometimes two or more consonant letters are blended together, familiar consonant blends are:

bl, cl, fl, gl, pl, sl, br, cr, dr, gr, pr, tr, sc, sw, sk, sm, sn, st, sp.

Triple blends are: scr, str, spl, squ, spr, and others.

Pronounce each of the following words. Ask pupils to listen for the consonant blend at the beginning of each word. Then have pupils underline each blend.

snow	three	slap
swallow	ground	scream
dwarf	crown	stamp

Ask pupils to list other words beginning like the sample.

blow - blast, blimp, blue
crate - cry, crash, cramp

E. Consonant digraphs

Certain combinations of consonants have a single sound unlike that of either of the individual consonants: sh, ch, th, wh, gh, ph.

Have pupils think of other words that begin like:

the - that, these
church - chap, charm

Ask pupils to finish the sentence with a word that begins like the key word.

Key Word	Sentence
chin	The wedding was held at the _____.
show	He used a _____ to dig the hole.

F. Rhyming elements

Have pupils think of additional words that rhyme with the key words.

Key Word	Rhyming Words
rake	take, bake, lake, wake
chill	will, sill, hill, till

Make a set of cards with one rhyming word on each card. Deal cards to three or four players. Player with most cards that rhyme is the winner. Words are pronounced as they are grouped.

G. Variant consonant sounds

Soft and hard c. The letter c has no sound of its own. When c comes before e, i, or y in a syllable, it usually has the sound of s and is called "soft c" as in century or center. When c comes before a, o, u in a syllable, it has the sound of k and is called "hard c" as in cake or carton.

Underline the word that begins with the c sound as in each key word.

Key Word	c Words
cane	cake, city, center
cent	carton, center, cake

Which sound of c do you hear in these words? Write s for soft and h for hard.

_____ grocer	_____ cotton	_____ city
_____ center	_____ collar	_____ cypress

Soft and hard g. When g comes before e, i or y it is usually soft and has the sound of j as in gentle. When g comes before a, o, or u it usually has a hard sound as in gum and gone.

Underline the word that begins with the g sound as in each key word.

Key Word	g Words
gate	goat, got, gentle
ginger	gentlemen, glance, ghost

Consonant d. The letter d has its primary sound in words like dig and dance. When ed is not a separate syllable, the d has the sound of t as in helped or d as in turned.

In words below if d has its primary sound as in done write d in the blanks. If d has the sound of t, write t.

_____ cinder	_____ stopped	_____ card
_____ declare	_____ helped	_____ depend
_____ turned	_____ earned	_____ chopped

Consonant f. The letter f has its primary sound in words like fair and finger. The letters ph and gh take on the f sound in words like telephone and tough.

Write three words that have the sound of f as indicated by the guide word.

Primary (found)	ph (telephone)	gh (tough)
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Sounds of k. When k is preceeded by a, o, or u, it is represented by the "hard c" sound as in copper. Ck is used to represent the sound of k after a short vowel as in rock and rocket. K takes its primary sound after a long vowel as in make or yoke.

The sound of k is represented by c in words such as quick and quite.

Write several words that have the k sound represented by the guide word.

c as k	ck as k	qu as kw	k
(color)	(tackle)	(quit)	(broken)

Consonant n. N has it primary sound in words as never or not and has a nasal sound in words like ring or hung.

Make a list of words in which n has the sound represented by the guide word.

N	Ng
Nearer	Sting
need	thing
next, etc.	ring, etc.

Consonant s. S may have its primary sound in words such as sing and sit, or it may have the sound of Z as in nose.

If s has the sound as in song, write s in the blank. If s has the sound of z as in hose, write z in the blank.

_____ spring	_____ cheese
_____ see	_____ nose
_____ noise	_____ simple

Consonant x. Sometimes the letter x has the ks sound as in vex, or x may have the gz as in exist.

Have pupils think of words when x has the ks sound and when x has the gz sound.

x as ks	x as gz
fox	exit
phlox, etc.	example, etc.

Letters w and y. W sometimes has the sound you hear at the beginning of way and window. With vowel it makes a diphthong as in cow and pew. Sometimes when w is combined with a vowel, it forms a digraph as in show and blow. At the beginning of a syllable, y has the sound heard at the beginning of year. Y usually represents the sound of i when it comes at the end or in the middle of a syllable as in sky and myth.

Read the following jingles to the group and ask them to supply the rhyming word. A similar exercise may be used with w words.

I am a color;
I rhyme with fellow.
I begin with y;
My name is _____(yellow)

I am in an egg;
I rhyme with folk.
I begin with y
My name is _____(yolk)

I am for knitting;
I rhyme with barn.
I begin with y
My name is _____(yarn)

Write three words showing how w is used and three showing how y is used.

Example:

W	Y
Waiter (consonant)	Yarn (consonant)
Knew (diphthong)	Sky (long i vowel)
Own (digraph)	Happy (short i vowel)

II. Discrimination Of Vowel Sounds

A. Long and short vowel sounds

	Short	Long
a	add	ate
e	end	he
i	it	ice
o	off	oat
u	up	use
y	city	sky

Say a number of words and have children put thumbs up for long vowel sounds and thumbs down for short vowel sounds.

Vowel generalizations. The primary objective is not to teach generalizations, but rather to have children see the applications. When two vowels are written together, the first vowel is usually long and the second vowel is usually silent as in raise, lease, and hoax.

A single vowel in the middle of a word usually has a short sound as in hat, bed, and hit.

Have pupils select words from supplementary readers or spelling lessons that meet these rules.

Words with two vowels, one of which is final e, the e is silent, and the first vowel is usually long as in take, bone, and tube.

When the only vowel in a word comes at the end as in go, be, and try, the vowel is usually long.

B. Long and short oo.

Most words containing oo are pronounced in one of two ways. Long oo as in soon and short oo as in look. There are a few oo words which are neither short nor long as blood (blud) and door (dor).

Direct pupils to supply the correct diacritical mark over the oo in a list of words. Have them say the words aloud.

C. Diphthongs

Diphthongs are two adjacent vowels, each of which contributes to the sound heard. The two vowel sounds are blended.

The diphthongs oi and oy have the same sound (boil = boyl; toy = toi).

The diphthongs ou and ow sometime have the same sound (plow = plou; cloud = clowd).

Have pupils make a list of words using diphthongs. A sample list is given:

cow	tower	ground	coin
owl	south	fowl	toy
brown	loud	boil	joy

D. Variants

The sound of ou in shout, though, through, and touch.

Ask pupils to find words that have four sounds of ou as represented by guide word.

Shout	Though	Through	Tough
about	dough	group	enough
sound	soul	you	rough
found	four	soup	youth
bound	pour	troupe	

Au and aw spell the same sound in many words.

Have pupils fill in au or aw to complete the following words:

dr--n	h--l	f--cet
d--n	s--	dr--
str--	bec--se	y--ned

Ey and ei make the long a sound in words like neighbor and they.

Have pupils suggest or find examples to fit this category.

Vocabulary Development

I. Finding Small Words (Pronounceable Units) In Compound Words:

List a group of words and have children underline the parts.

cow boy	air plane
barn yard	bed room
story book	birth day

Children may make a list of words made up of smaller words.

cowboy, sunshine, henhouse, grandfather, something, into, grandmother, springtime, bedtime, etc.

List the parts of compound words in two columns and match the words that go together by drawing a line.

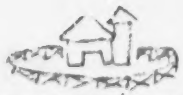
grand	way
some	bye
in	day
a	mother
birth	to
bed	thing
good	room
no	be
may	boy
air	plane
cow	body

Underline the small words in the compound words. Draw a line from the word to right picture.

airplane

barnyard

doghouse



baseball

Play a detective game to see who can find little words in compound words, (or circle them, etc.)

II. Learning About Word Structure And Word Building Through Study Of Root Words, Prefixes And Suffixes.

Putting word parts together:

Many words are made up of two or more word parts which are combined.

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Small words may be put together to form compound words. Root words may have prefixes and suffixes attached to change their meaning.

Make a card file. Write a root word and its meaning on each card. Pupils may write new words on each card by adding prefixes or suffixes. A definition should be written for each new word. Class members may use the file for creative writing exercises.

Words may be taken from spelling units or basal reading vocabulary.

A. Prefixes

Prefixes commonly used:

ab - from
ad - to
anti - against
circum - around
con - with
de -down, from
dis - apart
ex - out
en, em - in
inter - between
fore - front
il - not
micro - small
mis - no
non - not
semi - half
sub - under
super - over
post - after
pro - for
re - back
un - not
tele - far
trans - across
pre - before, in front

Use the following prefixes in the sentences:
sub, non, semi, and fore

The king snake is ____ poisonous.
The patient was in a _____ private room.
The weatherman can ____ tell a storm.
A big plow reaches the ____ soil.

Use the prefix "sub". Make as many words as you can. Some words that may be combined with it are: way, soil, head, normal, marine, zero.

Use in, de, semi, and inter in the same way.

Show by use in sentences the different meanings of in, im. Make a list of words showing each use.

Match prefix with root word: give new meaning and use in sentences.

super	phone
micro	port
trans	navigate
circum	highway

Match each prefix with one of its meanings by placing the number of the prefix before its meaning.

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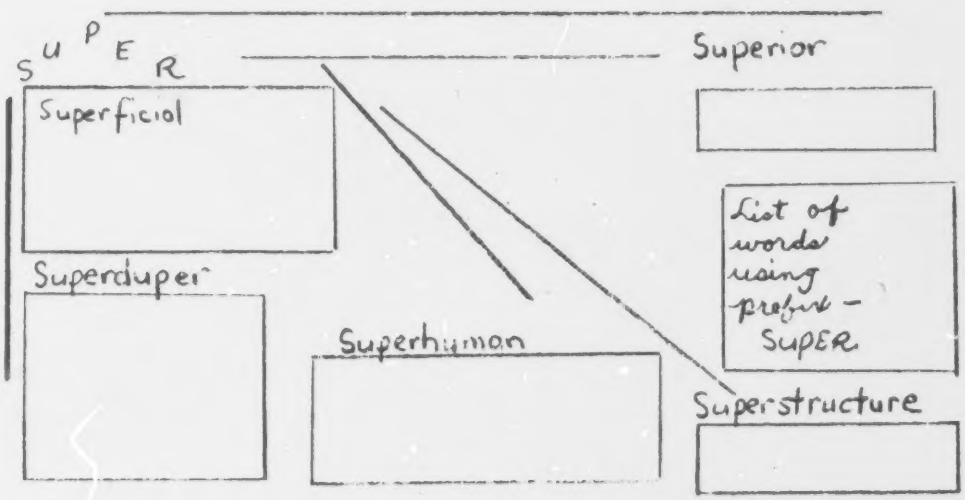
1.	ad	apart
2.	bi	out
3.	circum	back
4.	dis	twice
5.	re	around

Bulletin board display:



Some of the words are illustrated.

Draw a line from the group of words to the word that completes the sentence. Draw a line under the root word and a box around the prefix.

One who is not kind is	disagrees
When one does not obey he	unwanted
Someone not wanted is	reread
To read something over is to	unkind
One who does not agree	disobeys

B. Suffixes

Commonly used suffixes:

able, ible--capable of being
ance, ancy, ence, ency--quality or state of being, thing that is
an, im--having to do with, native of
age--state or condition of, place of
en--make, made of
er, or--one who does or uses
ful, full--full of
ist--one who does or uses
ity--condition, quality

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ize--make, become, engage in
less--without
ment--state of
ness--condition of being
our--full of
ship--state of being
tion, sion--state of
fly--make, change, become
ic--having the nature of, having to do with
ly--forms adverb

Write sentences using base words, then other forms using suffixes.

Example: What did Joe decide to do about his test?
His decision was wise--he decided to study.
He wrote in a decisive manner and spoke more decisively.

Try these base words: science, please, courage, and fear.

Draw a line from the suffix to its meaning:

ly	state
er, or	condition
en	without
ity	full of
less	one who is or does
ful	forms adverb
tion, sion	makes or made of

Write the verb declare. Write the noun form, using the tion ending. Write the adjective form, using the tive ending. What vowel must you write before these suffixes?

Write compare. Write the ing form. Write the adjective, using the tive ending.

Write the verb exclaim. Write the noun form, using the tion ending. Write the adjective form, using the tory ending. Remember that claim becomes clam and an a is added before the suffix.

The verb interrogate means "to question". Write the tion noun form and the tive adjective form.

Write imperative. Write the adverb form by adding ly.

Ask the children to read each sentence and answer the questions.

Bob wanted to be the catcher in the ball game.
What is the root of the underlined word? (catch)

Debbie is the smallest one in her family.
What is the root of underlined word? (small)

Who are they?

_____ someone who farms.
_____ someone who paints.

What are they?

_____ tool used for cleaning.
_____ a thing used to dry hair.

Number a list of words. Put the right number in front of each phrase.

Pictures and action used to illustrate er, est.

1. small dog
   larger dog
   Which is largest?
   Which is smaller?
2. Use children as: one tall, taller and tallest
   Which is the tallest?
   Which is taller?
   Which is tall?
3. Use same idea with short, shorter, and shortest children.

C. Combination of prefix, root and suffix

Underline root word, circle the prefix and put a box around the suffix.

Example: (un) happi [ly]

From a list of words have the children write under three headings

prefixes	root words	suffixes

such words as unavoidable, disrespectful and disagreement.

Give a root word and have pupils form as many combinations as possible. Call attention to changes in pronunciation and accent.

prefixes	root	suffixes
super	flu	ance, ence
in		ous
con		ent
re		me
af		tial
		ly
		id
		tion
		ate
		ish
		ed
		ry

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Some words that can be made:

superfluous	flue
fluid	influenza
influence	reflux
influx	flume
fluorescent	confluent

Ask students to choose a word from the above list to complete the sentence below:

What _____ ___ flows through veins?
These are _____ lights.
He is ill with _____.
_____ are used to transport logs.

Examples:

noun	verb	adjective	adverb
beauty	beautify	beautiful	beautifully

comprehend
reflect
impress

A story could be made from various forms. Use "satisfy"

The coach's _____ showed in her face when the team won. He was completely _____ with the performance of the players. Each had done his job _____. The coach took the team out for a meal. They ate heartily but still seemed _____. Everyone was _____ with the bad conduct of part of the crowd.

Make a list of words using suffixes and prefixes that have been brought into our language because of modern events of inventions.

Example: astronautic

The history of words and their parts helps us remember their meaning and pronunciation.

Example: television--tele--far off
vision--seeing
microscope
telegraph

What makes the difference?

A careless boy or a careful one?
A governor or a government?
An exported product or an imported product?
A courteous man or a discourteous man?
A cloudy sky or a cloudless sky?

A root word is a base to which word parts may be added. A prefix is added to the beginning of a root word. Suffixes and other endings are added to the end of a root word. Write each word part in the word below. The first word is done for you.

dis---disagreeable---able
------mountainous ------
------forenoon ---------
------improper ---------
------miscounted- ------
------unwinding---------

A root word is a base to which word parts have been added. Write the root word for each of the words below. The first one is done for you.

dishonestly	honest
entangle	_____
semifurnish	_____
quotation	_____
noisiness	_____
direction	_____
marvelous	_____
unshaved	_____
simplify	_____
unwisely	_____
movement	_____
replacement	_____

Sometimes the root word is changed when an ending is added. Write the root word for each of the words below. The first word is done for you.

plentiful	plenty
classified	_____
measurable	_____
provable	_____
donation	_____
movable	_____
pleasurable	_____
famously	_____
readiness	_____
storage	_____

III. Grasping The Meaning Of A Word From Its Context Or Sentence Meaning Or Position

A. Experience clues

Use an experience story that has been written on the board or chart. Let different children frame words they can read now but could not read before.

Use a copy of the same story that has been cut into strips; let

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pupils match the strip with the identical line in the story.

Let different children read the story aloud.

Ask children what this word means to them. (In view of their experience).

Example: safe

1. When you reach home plate or ot er base fairly?
2. A place for valuables?
3. Free from danger?
4. A kitchen cabinet?

Now, which meaning does "safe" have in this sentence:

The boy was safe on third base. 1

Describe similar experiences you had like a character in a story. Describe a person they have known like a character in the story. List all of the things about a place described in a story that would be true of the area in which they live.

3. Contrast or comparison

Use in discussions when an unfamiliar word is presented to the pupils.

Example: A turban is like a towel wrapped around your head.

Collect pictures that make comparison as:
tall, taller, tallest

Draw pictures that suggest:
small, smaller, smallest (etc.)

Let children fill in the comparative words.

Example: This book is light. Your pencil is lighter.
A horse is a large animal. An elephant is a larger one.
A whale is the largest animal.

Read several poems and contrast or compare the themes.

Compare the feelings of certain characters in a story of a particular situation.

Compare or contrast information gained from graphs.

Compare or contrast the similarities or differences of characters in a story.

Allow students to compare characters or events in particular stories, or library books. Relate one story, event, or character in one book to another book he has read.

Contrast living conditions, cultures, experiences, etc., of book characters with his own life or that of a friend or neighbor.

Contrast derivatives in contest: friend--a friendly person, a friendless person, friendship, friended, friendliness.

This comparison lends itself to teaching different parts of speech.

Contrasting spelling pattern: prince, price, prance
lose, loose, loss, lost
since, sense, scents, cents
to, too, two

Give children an opportunity to create imaginative similes and exaggerations.

Let boys and girls supply descriptive endings for incomplete sentences:

He laughed _____.
The giant _____.
Her face looked _____.
Sleet and snow _____.

Where comprehension of any passage is vague, use a comparison.

"A rolling stone gathers no moss", is compared to any person who moves from place to place or job to job who seldom succeeds or excels.

Let pupils complete the following sentences and add others:

The rain came down like _____.
The falling snow was as quiet as _____.
Her quick temper _____.
The funny clown looked like a spotted _____.
The boy ran like a _____.

Contrasting or comparing presents an opportunity for introducing similes.

Figure of speech, metaphor, also comparing adjectives: positive-comparative--good-better--superlative-best

C. Synonyms and antonyms

Synonyms

Example: (Discussion) think of as many words as you can that mean the same thing as:

big--large, huge, enormous
tall--high
little--small, tiny

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bucket--pail
bag--sack
carry--bring, tote

Opposites

Example: draw lines connecting the words that have opposite meanings.

go	down	in	under
up	white	cry	laugh
black	come	over	out

Read the incomplete sentence and underline the two words that will complete the sentence (synonym).

The fruit that hung from the tree was _____ the lad's head.

against above over

Match opposites.

Put phrases on board and let children see how many synonyms they could use.

The building is big. (large, immense, huge, etc.)

Cards with antonyms are given out. A child stands with his card while the opposite in meaning joins him.

Complete the sentences with antonyms.

The boy is little. The man is _____.

Draw a line under the word that has the same or almost the same meaning as the first in each row:

happy sad, glad, sorry

Place S in front of words that have the same meaning (homonym).
Place O in front of words that are opposite in meaning (antonyms).

_____ open, shut
_____ yelled, screamed
_____ always, never

Cross out the word that does not belong:

merry, gay, glad, sad

Use a synonym for the word that is underlined in the sentence.

He came fast.

Underline the word that means the same as beautiful:

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pale, pretty, lonely, thoughtful

Underline the word that means the opposite of noisy:

boastful, tiny, quiet, rosy

In each line, find the two words that have opposite meaning.

many	some	no	few
tall	slim	short	little
good	tired	sad	bad
night	bad	wrong	trouble
wet	dry	damp	moist

Have children find the synonym for the underlined word and circle it.

creek--ocean, river, brook
huge--high, large, small

For each of the five words in the first column there is a synonym. Draw a line to each synonym. Write a sentence using the synonym.

noticed	saved
tamed	saw
reserved	not wild
delighted	hurried
hastened	glad

Below this group of words is a list of synonyms. Find the word that matches the synonym and write it in the blank.

terriers	kennel	eagerly
cane	hated	displaying
crooked	difficulty	shape
awkward	perfect	
chuckled	harvesting	
gloomy	less	

disliked _____
faultless _____
laughed _____
clumsy _____
curved _____
dogs _____
smaller _____
anxiously _____

form _____
stick _____
trouble _____
sad _____
gathering in _____
dog house _____
showing _____

In each row across, draw a line under the word or words that mean almost the same as the first word in the line:

ordinary, very fast, afraid, strange, usual
unusual, very fast, afraid, different, usual
swiftly, slowly, very fast, afraid, strange
excited, happy, afraid, sad, strange
strange, surprising, afraid, very slow, queer

Write a sentence using the antonym for each of the words at the beginning of each row. Choose the antonym from the row of words above the blanks.

slept, cowardly, wrong, cruel

right _____
brave _____
kind _____
awoke _____

In each of the sentences below, a word is left out and a word is underlined. Fill each blank with a word that means the opposite of the underlined word. You will find the missing words in the row of words above the group of sentences.

daring, foolish, midnight, rough

The other boys were <u>afraid</u>, but John was _____.
The fox was <u>wise</u>, when other animals were _____.
The shirt was of <u>smooth</u> cloth, the coat of _____.
The clock looks the same for <u>midday</u> as it does for _____.

D. Homonyms

Read and think about the meaning of each word. Write or dictate a sentence using each word.

dear--deer
bear--bare
mail--male
blue--blew
see--sea
cents--sense
I--eye
sun--son
wood--would
flour--flower
here--hear

Underline correct word to complete the sentence as:

I _____ who you are. (no, know)
We can _____ the band. (here, hear)

Exercises such as these could be used on ditto sheets:

Which word tells about each picture?
Circle the right one.

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	son or sun		eye or I
	flour or flower		wood or would

Fill in the blank with the correct homonym:

The storm was _____ over the frozen lake. (breaking, braking)
Allan dug a pit with the _____of his snowshoe. (tow, toe)
The fire began to _____ as soon as he added wood.
(flair, flare)
He used his _____ to unravel the sock. (awl, all)
Working carefully, Allan chopped a square hole in the ice covering the _____. (creak, creek)

Some words sound the same, but are not spelled the same. They have different meanings.

In the sentences below underline the homonyms.

The girl in the blue dress blew out the candle.
I must buy bread by six o'clock.
Every little deer is a dear to its mother.
If a doughnut is whole it has a hole in it.
The maid had a pretty dress made for her.

Write sentences containing the following pairs of homonyms:

threw	so	meat	road	piece	pail
through	sew	meet	rode	peace	pale

Fill in blanks with the correct homonym chosen from the list:

nil--ale
bask--basque
beach--beech
birth--berth
bred--bread
ark--arc
I'll--aisle
board--bored
petal--peddle--pedal
sent--cent--scent
hare--hair
here--hear

_____ meet you at the center of the _____.
Over the _____the artist had drawn an _____of a beautiful rainbow.

The members of the _____ were obviously _____by the long speech.

Have students add more words to the list, also define words and write sentences.

These homonyms and others may be used effectively in teaching parts of speech. Petal--n. peddle--v. pedal--n. v.

Have students identify homonyms from illustrations drawn.

Reinforce the understanding that the meaning of the word is determined by the context in which it is used:

As he stood beneath the low-hanging bough, he was seen to bow to the people. He stood on the bow of a ship with a bow and arrow.

E. Summary clues

Technique:

Ask: What was this story really about?
Was this a good name for the story?
What do you think Sally will do next?
Who all was in our story?
How do you think Mother felt when they gave her the present?
What would you have done?
Give a short story of your own of the story read.
Draw a picture that tells what you learned.
Listing words that help tell the story.
Finding what, where, when, etc., words.
Dramatizing
Writing individual questions for children to ask each other.
Reading favorite parts.
If it is a make-believe story, the child makes believe he is a clown (for example) and writes a story.
Noting action words, time element, etc.
Clear up meaning of words.
What word would describe the boy just read about.
Summarize some of the inferences that can be made about the life of people in a particular country a story has been about.
Paragraph summary clues:
last, finally, in conclusion, after all, etc.

Example: Finally, the children packed their books, put on their coats, and raced homeward.

Adding all the evidence against the prisoner, the jury found him guilty.

Let the pupils write paragraphs using summary clues.
Have them make other clues.

Outline two or three paragraphs--then make a summary by bringing together the main ideas.
Read aloud an article--have pupils make a summary of the important points they have heard.

Divide story according to this outline:

A. Introduction
B. Story action
   1. Attempts are made to solve the problem
   2. The problem is solved and reactions given

Discuss the following examples with the class:

The rain stopped before dawn. The gunfire did, too. Everything seemed calm and still, and Danny wondered if the world had ended.

All the little lights began to wink and blink. The sweeper motor ran. The fan whirled. The dog clipper whirred. Everything made a terrible noise. It was great.

F. Association clues

Let the pupils tell what they think of when they hear these words:

home--where I live
home--bird nest--dog house

right--the things we should do
write--what I do with my pencil

light--we turn it on when it gets dark
light--not heavy

red--color--flag--shirt
read--book--paper

Have pupils tell what associations they make when they hear these words:

sink--ship, pirate, gold
sink--silver, dishes, soap

arrow--traffic signal, turn
arrow--bow, feathers, tepee

basket--sandwiches, cookies, fruit basket, team, throw, score

Relate the following to your own experience:

The name stuck.
He could see the mule galloping like the wind.

Think of definitions of underlined words and relate to sentences.

On such a day there is a flood of butterflies on the north shore of the bay.

The whole bay is covered by a flying carpet of butterflies.

Find the word in this list that tells us where we:

clue	words
buy food	farm
go swimming	table
find cows	store
eat dinner	beach

Find the word that tells what animal:

gives a ride	dog
gives us milk	horse
barks loudly	duck
swims under water	cow
says "quack"	fish

Read sentences, then choose the correct ending from those below and write it in the blank.

s es ed ing

The ice-cream cone was invent— by Mr. Ernest Hamul.
Ernest watched the ice-cream man washing dish— faster and faster.
All day Ernest and the ice-cream man work— together.

Read each sentence and the three words below. Then, draw a line under the word that belongs in the space.

Johnny liked to _____ about an Italian named Columbus.

brag crag stag

The _____ of people stood five or six deep along the street.

clown crown crowd

G. Reflection of mood or situation

During the readiness period we discuss facial expression; happy, sad, angry, surprised, etc.

Later we discuss things, such as, "How Sally felt when her balloon burst."

Also, how a character feels and if you would feel the same way.

If not, why? Would you do the same thing? If not, how would you do it?

Read each incomplete sentence. Underline the word that tells how a character may have spoken.

"Get out of the way," said Jim.

said snouted thought

In the story, how did the person feel?

Take a sentence out of context and read it in different ways. Ask the children, "How did the father mean this?"

"A goat is just what we need." (We really do)
"A goat is just what we need." (We really don't)

Read this sentence in two ways (note punctuation). The situation would determine which meaning and punctuation.

Have you made trouble for me!
Have you made trouble for me?

Ask how the person's feeling could be described.

A strange boy was afraid of his teacher and could not learn a thing. He was afraid of the children and could not make friends with them. He was left along at study time. He was left alone at playtime. He was always at the end of the line, always at the foot of the class; a forlorn little tag-a-long.

Discuss the mood the author sets for different parts of a story.

Discuss how circumstances and people influenced the life of a particular character in a story.

Read the sentences and the words below each sentence. Draw a line under the word that describes the mood.

"This is super!" Stuey cried. "Just what I wanted."

startled discouraged happy

"Stuey," said Miss Taylor, "I'm waiting."
Miss Taylor was _____

startled doubtful impatient

"Brother!" Stuey said, speaking to the paper. "You had me worried."

Stuey was _____ .

puzzled, amazed, relieved

IV. Idiomatic Language

"Idioms are expressions, which are peculiar to a language..."

Common idioms:

put up with
all of a sudden
get rid of it
in the long run
get into hot water
with a grain of salt
pleased as punch
scared to death

In a language unit concerning Figures of Speech (simile, metaphor, personification, and hyperbole) you may enrich your discussion with "varieties of diction" (Archaic expressions, colloquialisms, improprieties, newly coined words, provincialisms, slang, trite expressions, and idiomatic expression). These should be stenciled with explanation of each.

Tell what the underlined idioms mean.

Mr. Bell took the floor.
Mr. Johnson lost his head.
Roberta saw red.

Read sentences, find the phrase which explains the underlined words and write the sentence number by the phrase.

1. Today, it's raining cats and dogs.
2. I'll just die in a small town.
3. Grandfather made everything come alive.
4. Here's the jumping-off place.

_____told things in an interesting way
_____the end of the ride
_____a heavy storm
_____have nothing to do at all
_____be full of happiness

V. Words That Have More Than One Meaning

On duplicated worksheets have groups of three sentences. Have pupils check the two sentences with the same meaning.

___ Sally looks like Mother.
___ Dick likes cake.
___ Jane likes Father.

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The use of the words to, two, and too in sentences.

I went to town.
We have two balls.
Sally went with Mother, too.

Imagine a T. V. announcer with a panel of three or more.

Announcer gives a word.
Panel member gives a sentence with the word.
One point is given for each correct meaning.

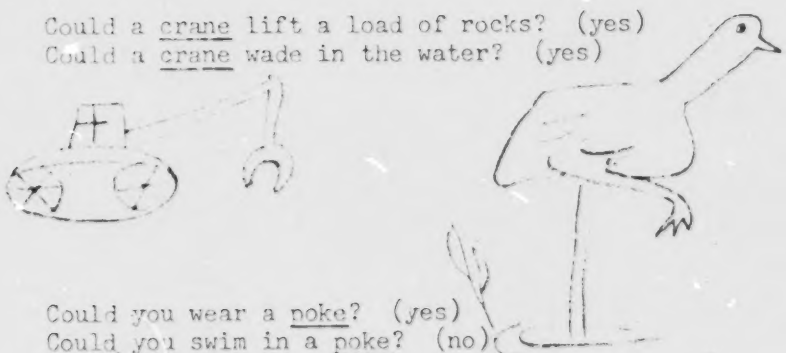
Read the definition of Spring. Read the two sentences. Choose the sentence in which the word spring has that meaning.

Spring--time of year
This spring came out of the old chair.
Will you buy a new hat this spring?

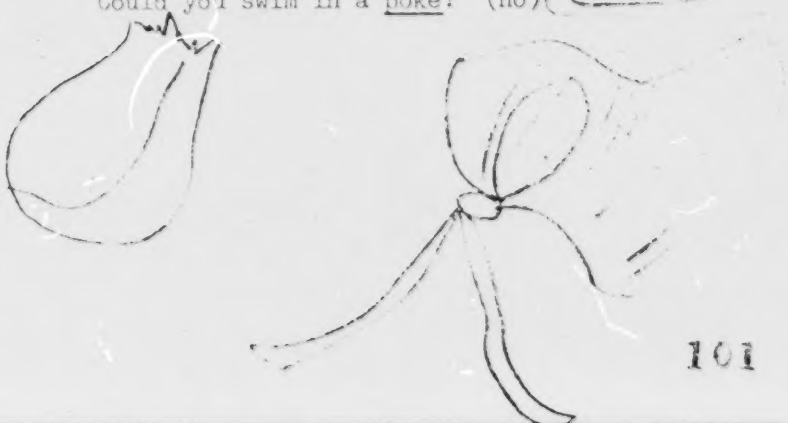
Read each question and notice the underlined word. Use a glossary or dictionary to answer the question with yes or no. Draw a picture to illustrate the meaning.

Might a frog be found on a coat? (yes)
Would a frog be found near a pond? (yes)

Could a crane lift a load of rocks? (yes)
Could a crane wade in the water? (yes)



Could you wear a poke? (yes)
Could you swim in a poke? (no)



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Present definitions. Give sentences with appropriate meaning. Write sentences with the different meanings of bank.

We fished from the bank.

I put my money in a bank.

Spring is a season.
I saw the boy spring from the diving board.

Give definitions of a word. Have students give sentences for each definition.

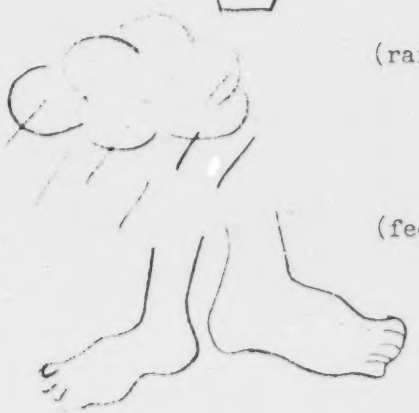
Example: roll
1. to move by turning over and over
2. to wrap around something
3. to move on wheels
4. to move smoothly
5. to make flat or smooth with a roller
6. to move from side to side
7. to rise and fall again and again
8. anything rolled up
9. list of names
10. kind of bread or cake

Give definition number from dictionary for the underlined word:

We had rolls for lunch. 10

Write the words that belong in the blanks.

I have a green _____.
_____the seeds. (plant)



_____fell yesterday.
It may _____ today. (rain)

The log is three _____ long.
He has two _____. (feet)

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VI. Similar Words That Have Different Meanings

Many words have similar spellings but have entirely different meanings such as:

every, very
even, ever
disinterested, uninterested
affect, effect
counsel, council

Suggest some to pupils and then have them find others, some suggested exercises follow:

Use sentences with blanks:
(even, ever)

Did you _____ bake a cake?
No, I can't _____ boil water.

Discuss the difference in meaning of the words:

blew, blue
know, no
write, right

Define the words and use them to fill in the blanks:

Principle -- Principal
Which -- Witch

Did you see which girl came dressed as the old witch?
He asked for a story which told about a witch.

Advise, advice

What would you _____ me to do?
His _____ about my education was wise.

Capitol, capital

Washington is our _____ city.
The _____ building is very large.

Dismounted, remounted, unmounted

An _____ horse came into the yard.
The soldier _____ his horse, went into the house, and got his orders.
He _____ his horse and went to his station.

Farther, father

Joe's _____ helped him with his project.
The distance to Mary's house was much _____ than I thought.

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brought, bought

Jim _____ a ball to school.
He had _____ this ball at the store.

When your house is crowded, do you sleep on a palate, pallet, or palette?

Discuss words and true meaning. Read the sentences. (The preferred forms are in parentheses).

A good speaker is efficient (effective).
A skilled workman is (efficient) effective.
The mountain road was precipitate (precipitous).
Avoid rash and precipitous (precipitate) actions.
Awaiting the signal, the racehorse was restless (restive).
The patient spent a (restless) restive night.
Does a government recress or (address) news during the war?
(Rerress) suppress suggests the presence of an external deterrant.
Circumstances (alter) altar cases.
The (altar) alter was removed.

Comprehension Skills

The heart of the reading task is obtaining appropriate meanings from the printed page. Comprehension of the printed page involves many facets which are interdependent and interactive. For the purposes of this guide, however, the basic comprehension skills are discussed separately. It is hoped that the teacher will see the progression up the comprehension ladder as skills are built from recall of specific facts to interpreting information and then to critical reading.

Recall Of Specific Facts

The ability to find answers to specific questions such as who, what, when and where is the major purpose in teaching the recall of specific facts. This kind of comprehension has also been called "reading the line."

I. Finding The Main Idea

Have pupils:

select titles for experience stories

select a title for a short story from several suggested titles

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Give pupils a newspaper and a problem to solve, such as "Name the five top teams in the eastern division of the American Baseball League".

II. Determining Sequence Of Events

Have students retell story. Note omissions of significant facts and change in order of events.

List in scrambled order the major events in a selection. Ask the students to place events in the proper order.

Arrange a series of story-telling pictures in the correct sequence.

List the order in which the characters appeared in the story.

Tell in order the steps used to complete a piece of art work or to perform an experiment.

III. Reading To Note And Recall Details

List all of the words that describe a character or a setting of a story.

Draw a picture of a place or character from the description given.

Answer specific who, what, when, where questions.

From a list of ideas choose those mentioned in a story.

IV. Following Printed Directions

Read and explain directions for playing a game.

Follow directions for making things such as candy or a model plane or car.

Give children a simple map. Have them trace the path taken from the directions given.

Follow written directions for a treasure hunt.

Interpreting Information

Interpreting information requires the ability to put facts together, draw conclusions and make generalizations. It has been described as "reading between the lines." Thinking and reasoning are necessary. How and why questions are in place of an over abundance of what and when ones help children learn how to think and not what to think.

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I. Determining The Author's Purpose

A. In fiction

1. Fanciful

2. Realistic

Read a story to the group. Follow with questions such as:

Do you think the author was trying to amuse, inform, or interest us?

Why do you think the author wrote the story? Give reasons for your answer.

Do you think the author was trying to tell us something funny?

Did you guess the outcome?

What part misled you?

Could this story really happen?

(To be read with older children)

Make a list of the following with class participation:

Figures of speech.
Unusual language.
New meanings for common words.
Words used instead of said.
Sentences or words to show a recurring or repretion of an action or idea.

B. In non-fiction

1. Editorials
2. News reports
3. Propaganda stories
4. Science reports
5. Historical accounts

Newspaper and magazine articles and advertisements are good materials for use with the following activities:

Have pupils bring to class articles concerning the same news topic from several newspapers or magazines. Share the articles and then lead pupils to identify the author's viewpoint as:

biased and/or misleading
unbaised
Implied bias

With the class determine the author's use of:

Personal opinion
Contrasting or comparing opinions
One-sided report

Questions similar to the following may be asked to give clues:

Are the facts "dressed up" or presented alone?

How would the report differ if someone else reported it?

Does the author allow you to form your own opinion?

What do you suppose is the other side of the story?

Did you form an opinion early in your reading? Did you change it later?

II. Recognizing And Reacting To Sensory Images: Sight, Sound, Smell, Taste And Touch

A list of words may be called and children asked to describe what they "saw" or "heard" as they listened to the words.

As a poem is read, ask children to close their eyes and visualize the scenes or listen for the sounds in the poem. Responses may be recorded on the chalk board or on a chart for future reference. Such charts are excellent for reference during creative writing.

The teacher may select descriptive phrases for the children to read and then tell if they would see, hear, feel, taste or smell them. Examples of such phrases would be:

the flag fluttering in the breeze

terraced fields of green and gold

dead air and dust and lamp oil

the cheer of the crowds

apple pies baking in the oven

the cool of the water

strong black coffee

III. Understanding Figurative Or Idiomatic Language

Types of figurative language are listed and defined for your information. At no time should mastery be required, but there should be continuous work toward understanding of the following types:

A. Simile

Expresses a comparison between two essentially unlike things--usually introduced by <u>like</u> or <u>as</u>.

B. Metaphor

Gives an implied comparison, without using <u>like</u> or <u>as</u>, between two essentially unlike things.

C. Personification

Ascribes human or life-like qualities to inanimate things.

D. Hyperbole

Uses gross or absurd exaggeration for poetic or imaginative effect.

E. Alliteration

Repeats the same initial sound in several words in close succession.

F. Irony

Uses a word apparently to mean one thing, but actually implies just the opposite.

G. Metonymy

Substitutes one word for another that is associated with it.

H. Apostrophe

Consists of a feigned turning from one's audience to address directly or indirectly an imaginary object.

I. Onomatopoeia

Uses words whose sounds suggest the sense.

IV. Identifying And Reacting To Mood And Tone

Ask pupils to tell what they think is the most thrilling, humorous, or beautiful part of a story. Older children may be asked to read their choices.

Discuss dialect in a story and ask pupil responses as to how its use affects the story. Does it make the story more interesting--or less interesting? Why? Is the story harder to read because of the use of dialect?

Call attention to the use of short, choppy sentences to show hurried, excited moods, or long flowing sentences to express quiet, peaceful moods.

Have pupils choose words from a story or poem that express different moods.

Ask pupils to read orally short selections or excerpts from prose or poetry to express different moods.

V. Making Inferences About Character Traits

Have children choose a character in a story and find and read orally sentences that help them "see" the character.

Call attention to the fact that seldom does an author tell exactly what a character is like but lets the reader discover for himself through inference.

VI. Predicting Outcomes

Read to the group the first part of a story. Ask them to finish the story. After sharing conclusions, finish reading the story and compare results.

VII. Perceiving Relationships

A. Sequence

Have pupils relate in proper sequence an experience such as baking a cake, performing an experiment, or giving directions to their homes from the school.

B. Relevancy

Ask pupils to listen to three or four sentences as they are read orally and tell which do not belong.

Have pupils proof-read their own writing or reports and delete sentences that are not related to the main topic.

C. Cause and effect

Give pupils an opportunity to explain their ideas about cause and effect in a story. References to stories previously read or to characters in history may also be read.

D. Time

Have pupils find and read orally sentences that refer to time. If definite time is not indicated, have them infer from information given.

E. Space

Ask pupils to locate sentences that indicate or infer distance such as: Miles, from home to school, one continent to another, or outer-space.

VIII. Making Comparisons

When a comparison is made two items are studied to determine how they are alike or how they are different.

Compare orally concrete items and pictures. Compare the main characters in two stories.

Compare life in Colonial America with life today.

Compare two poems about the same subject.

Compare the way two authors see life through a study of their writings.

Compare current events with similar episodes in history.

IX. Drawing Conclusions

A conclusion is drawn from several facts.

Have students read a paragraph and answer questions such as:

Does the paragraph contain a series of related facts about one subject?

Is it necessary to remember each fact separately?

Do you need only to get a general idea of what the several facts imply when considered collectively?

What conclusions can you make?

(For additional suggestions, see pages 45 and 47 Using the Media Center: School District of Greenville County 1968.)

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Critical Reading

Critical reading is reading in which the reader evaluates, that is, passes personal judgment on the quality, the value, the accuracy, and the truthfulness of what is read. It is the highest level of mental activity in understanding meanings and involves reading beyond the line. Many directed group experiences should be provided before individual evaluations are expected.

I. Evaluating Material In Light Of The Author's Purpose, Viewpoint, and Competency

Guide students in developing an inquiring attitude by asking such questions as:

Who is the author?

What are his competences, background and qualifications for writing about this topic?

Did the author use reliable information sources?

Are the sources current or appropriate?

Is his presentation slanted or are both sides presented? Has he made implications which are different from the actual facts? Has the author exhibited bias or prejudice?

Have students read articles about the same topic from several different sources and compare them.

Have groups make investigations of the backgrounds of the authors of two books on the same subject.

Compare information in two science books of different copyright dates concerning the same topic.

II. Evaluating Material In Light Of The Reader's Purpose

Have pupils skim articles to see if they contain needed information.

Have pupils sample a few pages of a library book to see if it interests them or if it is worth reading.

Have pupils find information in many types of reference books; encyclopedias, almanacs, maps, charts, dictionaries, etc.; and, then, ask them to decide which source (or combination of sources) is best for their problem.

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III. Distinguishing Between Fact And Opinion

A. Recognizing opinions and facts

Call attention to phrases such as it is believed, it is said, someone claims, and the author feels. These indicate an opinion.

Display an advertisement and ask students to write several opinions and several facts about each. Share their findings in oral discussion.

Ask students to write a list of facts and a list of opinions. (Alaska is a state) -- fact. (Alaska is a pretty state.)-- opinion.

Have students look for data given by qualified persons in a particular field. These are accepted as facts.

Have students find sentences based on statistics including dates and figures. These are facts.

B. Recognizing propaganda tricks

Information that is written, spoken or pictured for the purpose of changing a point of view or line of action is considered propoganda.

Types include:

Band-wagon (everybody is doing it)

"Plain folks" (speaker or author poses as plain folk)

"Stacking the cards" (attention shifted from one thing to another)

Sensationalism (use of material believed to arouse emotions)

Transfer (tells about something we like or desire and, then tells about the product or idea)

Glad names (Sparkle, Twinkle, etc.)

Bad names (Skinny, Fatso, etc.)

Testimonials (endorsed by some prominent person or group)

Scapegoats (blames someone else)

Use of a cliche (a trite phrase which has lost precise meaning)

Emotionally loaded words (our flag, our country, mother)

Ask students to search for examples of types of propaganda in news articles, radio and T. V. speeches, commercials, and other available sources.

Have pupils bring to class advertisements of popular products. Analyze each advertisement in terms of attention-getting devices. Discuss the validity of claims for the products, then, ask students to make a choice and justify the choice.

Call attention to the fact that propaganda may be used for constructive purposes. Suggest that pupils look for examples from T. V., magazines, newspapers and fliers.

Compare an advertisement or flier for the purpose of influencing opinion in a constructive way.

C. Recognizing bias and prejudice

After selecting current news articles ask students to answer questions similar to the following:

Does the article reflect a cross section of thinking concerning the topic or is it slanted?

Is the article readable and fair?

Have students select headlines from newspapers and magazines. Ask them to identify those that do not express opinion or contain bias.

Select several "Letters to the Editor" and ask students to suggest illustrations of prejudice and bias or objective writings.

IV. Comparing And Judging Different Points of View

Share portions of two books, such as Rabbit Hill by Robert Lawson and Rabbit by Herbert S. Zim. Guide the group in oral discussion concerning different points of view.

Select newspaper articles with different points of view about a topic or incident. Call attention to numerous factors that could cause the authors to view the topic differently.

Reading In The Content Areas

I. Description

The reading of mathematics, science and social studies materials presents an opportunity for the exercise of a variety of reading skills and techniques. These skills should be combined into a systematic approach to study type reading. If these study skills are to function realistically in the future, there must be ample opportunity for their use as a part of the class study of content material. A typical content area lesson might take this form:

General Plan for Content Area Study[1]

1. Motivation--attempt to create interest and to evoke background information by relating the material to experiences of pupils. As needed, employ pictures, drawings, audio-visual aids, and discussion.

2. Vocabulary--preview terms probably unknown to pupils, emphasizing meaning and pronunciation, by chalkboard. Include any common words to be used with new technical meanings.

3. Preview--preview the material with the group by their silently reading the headings, subheadings, summary, and any graphic aids. Ask children to suggest questions likely to be answered by reading; write these on chalkboard. If selection includes end-of-section questions, have children preview these. Discuss the implications of the preview questions.

4. Silent reading--have children read selection taking notes on the answers to preview questions. Give help to pupils on vocabulary or concepts as requested.

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[1] George Spache and Evelyn Spache, Reading in the Elementary School, (Boston, Massachusetts, 1969), 294-95.

5. Discussion--if material is relatively difficult for group, or exceptionally long, stop reading to discuss preview questions, one by one. Otherwise, permit children to read entire selection and base the discussion on their notes. Use oral reading, as needed, to cite facts, to clarify disagreements, to show chronology, to add supporting information.

6. Application--use one or two of the study skills learned thus far by the group to summarize and reinforce retention, e.g. outlining part or all of the material; making time line, chart or diagram; consulting other resource materials for verification of disputed or questionable points; planning a mural or individual illustrations of some of the events described; constructing a map of the area studied. When suggesting these reinforcing applications, structure your directions to pupils to lead them to employ such skills as skimming, previewing, scanning, collating notes, writing summaries, etc., to insure further use of the study skills already learned.

II. Skills In The Content Areas

A. Skills basic to all content areas

1. Reading skills

a. Word recognition

(1) Context

(2) Structural analysis

(3) Phonics

(4) Dictionary skills

b. Word meaning

c. Comprehension

(1) Main idea

(2) Details

(3) Relationships

(4) Interpretations

(5) Evaluations

(6) Assimilation

2. Study skills

a. Survey skills

(1) Set purposes

(2) Determine appropriate techniques

b. Interpret graphic materials

(1) Pictures

(2) Graphs

(3) Charts

(4) Maps

(5) Tables

c. Location skills

B. Mathematics

1. Technical vocabulary

a. Nomenclature (set, array)

b. Fundamental processes (union, intersection, decomposition, associative property, commutative property, etc.)

c. Fractions (numerator, denominator)

d. Units of measure (ounce, yard)

e. Abbreviations (lb., sq.)

f. Practical measurement (capacity, space, volume)

2. Specialized devices

a. Natural numbers, integers, number line, abacus

b. Alphabetical symbols ($\square$, $\triangle$)

c. Operational symbols (+, -, x, $\cap$, $\cup$)

d. Formulas and equations

e. Tables, charts, and graphs

f. Decimal system

3. Comprehension and study skills

a. Discovering relationships

b. Following directions for using a new process

c. Obtaining, analyzing, and interpreting facts

d. Organizing factual contents (quantitative data)

e. Recognizing and understanding basic mathematical processes and quantitative relationships)

f. Drawing implications (inferences)

g. Making applications (generalizations)

4. Type of reading required

a. Rapid first reading (preview) for general understanding

b. Slower second reading to identify details and relationships

c. Final reading to check on accuracy of computation and reasonableness of answer

C. Social studies

1. Technical vocabulary

a. Key words specific to the area studies (history, geography, government)

b. Names of people, civilizations, places, and other proper names

c. General terms with special meanings in social studies

d. Abstract words--such as, liberty, justice, equality, democracy, etc.

2. Specialized devices and materials

a. Diagrammatic materials--maps, graphs, charts, tables, pictures

b. Reference materials--almanacs, atlases, encyclopedias, and yearbooks

c. Current materials--newspapers and magazines, special news reviews, pamphlets, bulletins, travel folders, etc.

d. Source materials--original letters, logs of activities, diaries, minutes, directions, ballots and maps

3. Comprehension and study skills

a. Sensing the organization of the presentation (history may be organized around movements, periods, trends, chronology, or topics; georgraphy may be studied according to regions, physical features, economic factors, or by areas)

b. Understanding concepts of distance in time, space and location

c. Classifying geographical concepts according to basic needs: food, shelter, clothing, occupations, recreation, communication, transportation, esthetic appreciation, government, education, and religion

d. Grouping items to be learned into meaningful associations, cause-and-effect relationships

e. Associating personalities with events instead of attempting to remember isolated facts

f. Locating, summarizing, and comparing information from several sources

g. Deducing generalizations from a series of observations

h. Applying the generalization to new problems

i. Using critical thinking for evaluating source materials, recognizing author's purposes, distinguishing opinion and fact, making inferences, forming judgments, and detecting propaganda devices

4. Type of reading required

a. Previewing, skimming, scanning, and careful reading as determined by the reader's purpose and the nature and difficulty of the material

b. Wide reading to gain several points of view

c. Flexibility in rate of reading

D. Science

1. Technical vocabulary

a. Key words used in physics, chemistry, general science, and biology

b. General terms with special meanings in science

c. Specialized scientific words to describe the exact language of science

2. Specialized devices and materials

a. Symbolic language

b. Scientific abbreviations

c. Scientific formulas and symbolic expressions

d. Graphs, charts, tables, and diagrams

e. Wide range of trade books, reference materials, laboratory equipment, demonstrations, films, filmstrips, rocks, animals, minerals, etc.

3. Comprehension and study skills

a. Understanding of the scientific method

(1) Identify the problem

(2) Search for the facts

(3) Formulate hypotheses

(4) Choose an hypothesis and test it

(5) Evaluate the results, and, if necessary, reject the hypothesis and choose another for testing and evaluating

b. Developing the scientific attitude of demanding proof

c. Suspending judgment until facts are conclusive

d. Formulating generalizations based on sufficient evidence

e. Appreciating the achievements of science by reading about the lives of scientists

4. Type of reading required

a. Exact, detailed reading of most scientific matter

b. Laboratory approach--experiment, observe, read and test

c. Inductive-deductive method recommended for discovering facts and principles

d. Speed of reading is slow to fit pattern of analytical (reflective) thinking

E. Literature

1. Understand word meaning by:

a. Context clues

b. Structural analysis

c. Phonics

d. Dictionary skills

2. Understand and appreciate literature by:

a. Getting the general significance through identifying the stated or inferred main ideas in paragraphs, chapters, books, poetry, scenes from plays and other literary selections

b. Seeing that details, inferred or stated, support, illustrate and add color and life

c. Recognizing the author's purpose in writing, and evaluating the reliability and relevance of the context

3. Adjust reading rate by

a. Knowing the demands of a particular type of literature

b. Realizing that rate depends on purpose and type of selection

III. Retention Skills

Retention is a complex skill made up of many interrelated abilities. The following outline for retention of what is read was given in Betts' Foundations of Reading Instruction: (See Bibliography)

1. Ability to relate facts secured from reading to experience.
2. Ability to evaluate facts in terms of the purposes of the reading activity (problem to be solved).
3. Ability to determine when rereading is necessary.
4. Ability to select what to remember.
5. Ability to synthesize ideas and to integrate them with the whole of previous experience.

In discussing retention skills, it has been said that reading cannot be used as an aid to learning unless the mechanics of reading have been controlled; however, it is stressed that the mechanics of reading can be overemphasized. In this, the reader may be so engrossed in how he is reading certain materials that he fails to retain what he has read. Another important facet of retention is the purpose the reader

is given for reading. We should always give a child a purpose for reading a selection. We retain that in which we are most interested; therefore, if a child is not interested in reading about a subject, he should be highly motivated to do so. This aids in retention. Good motivation is a useful aid in retention.

Skill: Retention

Techniques:

Have group members take turns describing a character or animal from a story they have read. The others guess who it is. The one who guesses correctly gets to be it. A description of a place may be given. The others guess where it is. Insignificant details should not be given.

Have students "act out" words and others guess what word is being acted out.

Work together to decide other ways in which an idea can be expressed.

Let the group discuss together ideas gained from reading the selection.

Have student read orally the answer to a specific question.

Ask student to re-state, in his own words, ideas gained from reading.

IV. Dictionary Skills

The essential skills involved in using the dictionary as an aid to the perception of words in reading fall into three categories:

A. Location skills

1. Locating the correct entry word

2. Knowledge of alphabetical-sequence

3. Use of guide words

4. Knowledge that words appear according to the sequence of their letter importance

5. Command of structural analysis is often necessary

B. Pronunciation skills

1. Most dictionaries use special pronunciation alphabets

2. The pronunciation key helps the reader--(letter sound)

3. Some skills involved in deriving pronunciation

   a. Recognize given consonant phonemes and associate them with given symbols

   b. Recognize specific vowel phonemes and associate them with given symbols

   c. Use a pronunciation key to identify consonant and vowel sounds

   d. Blend consonant and vowel sounds into pronounceable units or syllables

   e. Recognize the function of usual syllabic divisions

   f. Recognize the function of the accent mark

   g. Blend syllables into whole words

4. Phonetic understandings are prerequisites

C. Meaning skills--deriving the meaning of the word

1. Importance of functional use of dictionary

2. Establishing a functional basis for teaching. The major purpose for using a dictionary as an aid to word perception in reading is to determine its meaning in order to comprehend the total context in which it occurs. To accomplish this purpose the child must be able to:

   a. Comprehend the definitions of the meaning given in the dictionary

   b. Determine which definition explains the meaning the author had in mind when he used the word

   c. "Tune" this definition back into the context in which he encountered the unknown word

3. Comprehension of explanations of word meanings

4. Selection of appropriate meaning to fit context

5. "Tuning" the defined meaning back into the context

6. Substituting a definition for the unknown word

7. Transposing the order of words

8. Adapting to inflectional form

9. Complete paraphrasing

Teachers at all levels must contribute to the development of permanently useful techniques in word perception.

At the primary level we may help the child develop understanding and skills that will enable him to attack, on his own, printed word symbols that stand for spoken words already known to him.

At the middle grade level we must help him extend and strengthen those understandings and skills. We must also help him develop efficient habits in the use of the dictionary. It is this last aid to word perception that enables the child to attack words that represent ideas he has not used in his speaking-meaning vocabulary.

Students should also learn that the dictionary is a good source of other information. Many dictionaries include maps, tables of measure, gazetteers, listing of colleges and universities, usage guides and common signs and symbols.

Skill: Use of dictionary

Techniques:

Have students make a picture dictionary for each new social studies, science, or math activity. Entries can be posted on the bulletin board--picture, word, and definition. After discussing them they can be transferred to a booklet having a page or spread for each letter.

Use flash cards, charts, and posters to teach syllabication, abbreviation, plurals, capitalization, etc.

Give students frequent experiences in arranging words in alphabetical order. The words can sometimes be selected from units of study.

Prepare a list of sentences. Underline a word in each sentence. Have students write the definition for the underlined word, choosing the best definition depending on how the word is used in the sentence.

Using the overhead projector, let a student write a word on the roll and have another student write a synonym or antonym opposite it.

Show filmstrips dealing with dictionary study and have students read and discuss each frame, with the assistance and guidance of the teacher and/or librarian.

Using the tape recorder, the teacher can read a story or poem to the class. A group can later listen to the tape and make a list of all unfamiliar words in the recording. They will, then, consult their dictionaries for meanings and spellings and report their findings to the whole class.

Location skills--guide words--appoint a leader. The leader finds a word in the dictionary and, then, turns backward or forward one page from that word. He, then, gives the class his new page number. When the class has found this page, he announces the word he has selected. The winner is the one who first tells whether to turn backward or forward to find the word announced.

Alphabetical sequence--making lists of words in alphabetical order by first, second, third, or fourth letters.

Meaning skills--dictionary quiz--two or more persons can take part. Select one person for the quizzer. He must have a dictionary. He looks through the dictionary for a word he thinks the others will not know. He pronounces and spells the word, then, asks what it means. Each person tries to be first in giving the correct meaning of the word. The person does not have to give the exact words appearing in the dictionary definition. He has only to give an explanation, in his own words, that is reasonably correct and if the person gives the correct meaning, he takes over as quizzer. Before the quiz starts, a person may make up a list of words that he believes to be hard. During the quiz all those playing the game will learn many new words.

V. Reference Skills And Use Of The Library Skills

The library is basic to the school's reading program. The effective use of library resources requires the combined efforts of the teacher and the librarian. The classroom teacher may present facts related to the library prior to a visit to the library. The librarian may give explanations on how to use certain facilities in the library

Reference skills include:

1. The parts and care of books
2. The arrangement of library books
3. The classification system used in the school library
4. The Dewey Decimal System of numbering
5. The teaching of note-taking
6. The making of bibliographies

7. The development of research skills through the proper use of resource materials found in encyclopedias, magazines, The Readers' Guide, the card catalog, atlases, newspapers, the World Almanac, etc.
8. The use of audio-visual aids.

Activities for reference of use of the library skills

Using the Media Center, a publication of Library Services in The School District of Greenville County, has many suggestions for activities to use in teaching these skills. Teachers should become familiar with these guidelines and refer to this publication as needs arise. Some sections to use are listed as follows:

1. The parts and care of books, Using the Media Center, p. 38-40
2. The arrangement of library books, Using the Media Center, p. 88-89
3. The classification system used in the school library
4. The Dewey Decimal System of numbering, Using the Media Center, p. 90
5. The teaching of taking notes, Using the Media Center, p. 74-79
6. The making of bibliographies, Using the Media Center, p. 83-87
7. The proper use of resource materials found in: Using the Media Center, encyclopedias, p. 60-62
   magazines and newspapers, p. 122-124
   the Readers' Guide, p. 115-116
   the card catalog, p. 100-108
   atlases, etc., p. 119-121
   the World Almanac, p. 112-114
8. The use of audio-visual aids, Using the Media Center, p. 14-18

VI. Flexibility And Fluency

The term flexibility, as applied to reading, refers to the ability to read different materials at different rates. The child should learn to adjust his reading behavior to the material and to the objectives he has for reading it. Previewing, skimming and scanning are techniques which must be mastered for speeding the process. Attention to flexibility results in greater comprehension, economy of time, and greater enjoyment of work-type reading. Fluency should receive increased emphasis beginning in the middle grades.

When the slow reader has overcome problems in word recognition and comprehension and has begun to eliminate other interfering habits, he is

ready for direct practice to speed up his reading.

There are four main types of practice for increasing rate of reading:

A. Motivated reading in which the reader needs to be motivated to read an abundance of interesting, easy books.

1. In addition to the easy reading materials it may be advisable to give the child practice on reading easy phrases.

2. Gradually, more difficult reading material and drill exercises can be used.

B. Timed silent reading with comprehension checks, strengthen the motivation to keep the rate going up, provide a record of progress, and the comprehension does not suffer in the process.

C. Tachistoscopic training

The tachistoscope is a device which allows presentation of visual material for brief periods of time. Visual training with this device has proven to give pupils help in fluency and comprehension under some conditions.

D. Controlled reading

1. The Controlled Reader is a filmstrip projector with automatic drive allowing varying speeds.

2. The Metron-O-Scope reading material is printed on rolls so that one-third of a line can be exposed at the time and at a speed selected by the instructor.

The methods which do not require special types of apparatus seem to give as good results as those which require elaborate equipment.

Study Skills

The term study skills is applied to a variety of reading abilities which children must continue to master on progressively higher levels. These are truly developmental because no given skill is taught exclusively at a

given grade level. As an example, consider the skill in using a table of contents which is first taught systematically in grade one when the teacher calls attention to the list of stories found in a pre-primer. With this one experience, no child will master this skill sufficiently to make effective use of the table of contents, index, and appendix at appropriate levels of usefulness to the child.

Some children will learn study skills incidentally, but the importance of these skills suggests that they must be interpreted as fundamental and must not be left to incidental learning.

Good study habits are essential for progress in and out of school. The SQ3R plan for studying an assignment in a textbook is sometimes helpful to students at fourth grade level and above. (See Appendix, page 190).

I. Location Skills

The effective use of location skills has become essential with the present emphasis on enrichment and on finding books and materials which contain the desired information. If a child wishes to find material on a given topic, he must be able to appraise his problem, estimate the likely source, locate the source within his classroom or library, use the index and table of contents, and skim to locate the exact discussion of the topic. The following skills, abilities, attitudes, and information should be developed:

1. Knowledge of what information can be found in parts of books
2. Ability to use previewing and scanning
3. Ability to use table of contents
4. Ability to find pages quickly
5. Ability to use index effectively and quickly
6. Ability to use a glossary
7. Ability to use chapter headings
8. Ability to use paragraph headings
9. Ability to use an appendix
10. Ability to skim to locate needed information

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11. Ability to use cross references
12. Ability to use the dictionary
    a. Spelling
    b. Pronunciation
    c. Meaning
    d. Abbreviations
    e. Guide words
13. Ability to use an atlas, yearbook, almanac, and encyclopedia, etc.
14. Ability to use maps, charts, tables, diagrams, and other graphic representations
15. Ability to use keys and footnotes
16. Ability to use and prepare a bibliography
17. Ability to use the card catalog and other aids within the library

A. Use of maps

Maps and globes, like textbooks and other teaching materials should suit the needs, interests and abilities of the students at every stage of their development.

To use a map effectively a child must be able to draw inferences from maps and globes and learn to see geographical relationships. He must know when a map will best serve the purpose for locating information.

Pictures and picture reading play a vital part in the continued growth and development of map reading skills.

Teaching the pupil to read maps includes:

1. Studying the title of the map
2. Studying each symbol
3. Noting direction on the map
4. Analyzing and applying the map scale
5. Orienting a map

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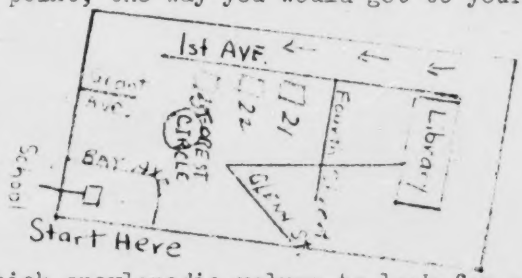
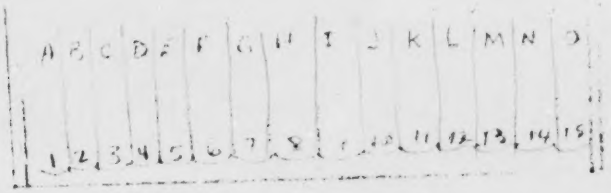
Skill: Sketch a map of your school and surrounding area. Designate a starting point as Start Here.

Technique: The student should hold the map so that the streets on the map are running in the same direction as the street itself. After the map is oriented in this manner, describe, from the starting point, the way you would get to your house.



B. Finding in which encylopedia volume to look for a given topic.



Directions to children: See how quickly you can find the right volume for each of the topics below. To the right of each topic, write the number of the volume in which you think the topic would be discussed.

1. soil _____
2. England _____
3. heart _____
4. forests _____
5. Canada _____
6. shells _____
7. navigation _____
8. fish _____
9. weather _____
10. soap _____
11. boats _____
12. Daniel Boone _____

C. Graphs

Graphs are simple pictorial devices for expressing abstract ideas of the comparison of numbers in such a way that they become meaningful at a glance.

Learning to read and interpret graphs, such as these listed, is very important. It is also important to understand which graph should be used to illustrate a specific idea.

Bar graphs
Pictorial and geometric bar graphs
Line graphs
Circle or pie graphs

To read graphs of one kind or another the student should

1. Read the title of the graph, which tells what the graph is about.
2. Discover what is being compared, persons, places or things.
3. Identify the scale of measure that has been used. What does each figure represent?
4. Discover what conclusions can be drawn.

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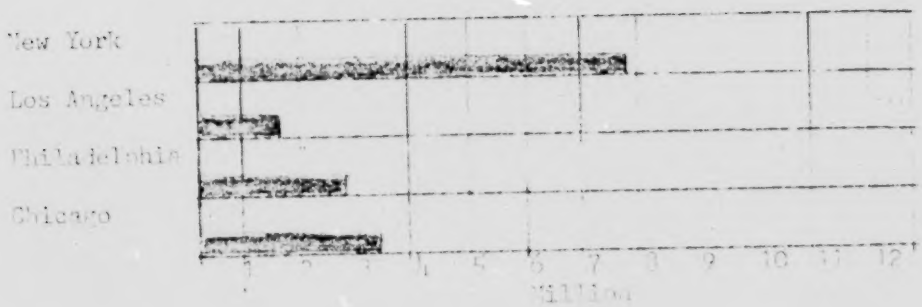
Using graphs

With this bar graph is a set of questions that checks the pupil's ability to read it.



1. The population of New York City is about
   a. 2,000,000
   b. 7,000,000
   c. 800,000

2. The city of Los Angeles has more people than the city of Philadelphia.
   a. true
   b. false

3. The city of New York is more than twice as large as the city of Chicago.
   a. true
   b. false

II. Organization Skills

In the first grade children are introduced to summarizing in a natural way. In planning a trip, the important things to look for are discussed, and, then, the teacher lists them. Each experience story told or recorded is a summary. Children decide what is important and arrange the events in proper sequence. (see Appendix, page 192) The teacher's guidance is a must. Children need much practice in separating the essential from the non-essential. The teacher can guide discussions so that children have many opportunities to evaluate ideas and to decide which is the best way to state an idea.

Sometimes it is good practice to ask children to classify the names of birds, animals, toys, articles of clothing and furniture, and other items under the proper category. Eventually they will learn to classify ideas; for example, a story has been developed following a trip to the dairy. The teacher will print a group of sentences which describe activities and other observations which pertain to the dairy. She will insert several sentences which do not relate to the dairy. The children are, then, asked to select those sentences which actually relate to their experience and to set aside those sentences which are not relevant.

At the same time, we establish the background for outlining and note-taking. Reading in which practice is gained in locating answers to questions, in selecting main ideas and in relating details to them helps lay the groundwork for outlining and note-taking.

Formal outlining is often started in the intermediate grades. The material best suited is factual material in which the thought structure is easy to identify. The outlining of single paragraphs should come first. The main idea is identified by capital letters. Each idea is expressed in a condensed form. Through the use of materials in which there are more complex patterns, with headings, subheadings and sub-subheadings, the children can be taught the usual sequence of sub-ordinations. (see Appendix, pages 192-194)

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Learning to summarize, has two main features. One is developing skill in finding main ideas. The other feature is learning how to state the essential thought of a sentence in one's own words as briefly as possible.

Outlining and summarizing skills are put into use in making records of what we read or in recording lectures. Important concepts or ideas can be written in incomplete sentences and by using appropriate abbreviations. (see Appendix, page 194, for complete program of outlining skills)

Skill: Organization

Techniques: Selecting bits of information from several sources in order to solve a problem or answer a question

Classifying, under appropriate headings, the steps required for a constructive activity

Placing in chronological order several events from history

Listing events which pertain to a particular occurrence in history

Visiting the library and locating in several sources the information needed to solve a problem or prove a point

Summarizing paragraphs in a single sentence and combining sentences to illustrate the organization of a chapter or selection

Gathering facts and figures and making charts, graphs, or maps which illustrate ideas learned in a unit

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PART IV

TESTING AND EVALUATION

Philosophy

Testing and evaluation as continuous, on-going processes are integral parts of good teaching. They should be guides in evaluating the reading progress in the classroom and in the whole school. The results of evaluation suggest what may be done to aid children in developing reading skills and reveal what is being accomplished. No evaluation program is perfect, nor is evaluation a simple process that can be reduced to one or two techniques. Good evaluation includes standardized tests (survey), informal tests, observing the pupil, interviewing, consulting cumulative records, and teacher-made tests which measure the pupils' strengths and weaknesses and indicate areas that need further emphasis. One should keep in mind the pupils' interests, attitudes, and capacities. Since reading is a complicated process associated with emotional, social, physical development and mental growth, no one testing instrument is sufficient as a measuring device. Test scores take on meaning when compared with many factors.

Evaluation should not stop at any point in the program, but should be carried on through all instruction. This evaluation must be broad in scope, relating to all the factors of reading achievement. It must have enough depth to provide a strong foundation of information on which instruction can be built.

It is important for every school to have as the major objective the development of effective readers, who use reading skills and abilities effectively on their levels and who enjoy reading make it a natural part of their lives.

Purposes

Evaluation should be done with a definite purpose in mind. Some purposes which may fit the needs of the classroom teacher are:

1. To estimate the needs of children in terms of the various reading skills.
2. To decide the nature of instruction in order to meet the goals of each pupil in the content area of the curriculum.
3. To test the effectiveness of instruction.
4. To decide on the need for materials of instruction
5. To assist the child's personal growth of interests, attitudes, and tasks in reading through immediate feedback.

Description of Available Tests

I. Standardized Tests

A. Scott-Foresman's Initial Reading Survey Test is given at the beginning of the school year to provide teachers with a means of evaluating how extensively children have acquired the abilities and understanding that contribute to success in learning to read. Hand scored.

B. Metropolitan Readiness Test is available to first grade teachers desiring to use the test. It is designed to measure the development of several skills and abilities of beginners that contribute to their readiness for first grade instruction. Requires approximately 60 minutes to give, and is given in three sections, in groups of no more than 15 children. Recommended to be used during first month of school. Hand scored.

C. Stanford Achievement Test is administered to all fourth and sixth grade students in the fall of each year.* A portion of the test is concerned with the Language Arts area, testing on paragraph meaning, word meaning, spelling, and language. In Title I schools paragraph meaning and arithmetic computation are given to fifth and seventh grade children in the fall.

D. The Gates-MacGintie Test is given in November to all second grade students, and in addition to all students in grades 1-3 in the Title I schools in May and November. Requires approximately 30

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minutes to administer. Covers vocabulary and comprehension. Hand scored.

E. Stanford Diagnostic Tests* in Reading will be available for students who are below average on the survey tests. The diagnostic hand scorable tests identify the specific skill in which the child needs remedial work. The manual gives suggestions to the teacher for working to strengthen each of the skill areas.

*(Requires several hours over a period of three days to administer)

II. Informal Reading Inventory

The informal reading inventory is a practical technique for the observation of a pupil's oral and silent reading achievement. Levels which may be determined through the inventory are:

1. The independent level is the level at which a pupil reads with at least 99 per cent accuracy in word recognition and with at least 90 per cent comprehension. This level is used in selecting supplementary reading materials, library books, and trade books the pupil will read independently.
2. As the inventory progresses, the pupil reaches a level he can read with at least 95 per cent accuracy and at least 75 per cent comprehension. This is the level at which he needs the teacher's help. This is the instructional level which determines the grade level of the textbook he can read with teacher guidance. This level is used in assigning the pupil to a reading group for the development of his reading skills.
3. When the reading material becomes too difficult, the pupil shows signs of frustration such as tension, finger pointing, word-by-word reading, repetitions, squinting, wiggling, etc. He will comprehend less than 50 per cent. This is his frustration level which should be avoided in the selection of textbooks and supplementary reading materials for the pupil.
4. After determining the above level, the teacher reads more difficult selections to the pupil to find whether or not he can understand and discuss what he has heard at levels beyond his instructional level. The highest level at which he can comprehend 75 per cent of the material read is his probable capacity level. It gives the teacher an index to the pupil's ability to gain and use information through listening. When this level is higher than his instructional level, the teacher assumes that his reading skills might be improved through further instruction, at lease to this level. Using the informal reading inventory in this way is a method of determining the amount of disparity which might exist between a pupil's probable capacity level and his reading achievement.

The informal reading inventory is made up of samples from books in a graded series, such as a basal reading series. These are presented to

the pupil, with questions prepared to test his comprehension of both silent and oral reading selection at each reading level. At least two samples are included for each reading level, pre-primer through seven. A sight word recognition test can be given first to estimate a starting point. For instance, if the child recognizes the words through grade four but misses one or more on the grade five level, the teacher could start the inventory with the fourth grade selection. (see Appendix, pages 193-202)

An informal reading inventory may be made by a teacher using samples from each grade level of a basal reader series not regularly used by her school. Questions that test both oral and silent comprehension must be given. Both factual and inference questions are used. Selections for the pupil to read are put on cards or pasted in a notebook. The teacher's copy is double spaced for ease in noting errors. (see Appendix, pages 203-214)

Checklists for recording and analyzing errors in oral and silent reading must be devised. (see Appendix, page 215)

Graded selections for an informal test may be found in two books entitled Graded Selections for Informal Reading Diagnosis, Grades 1-3, by Nila B. Smith and Graded Selections for Informal Reading Diagnosis, Grades 4-6, by Nila B. Smith, as listed in the Bibliography.

Teacher's Role in Administering Tests

I. Standardized (Group Testing)

A. A teacher's role in administering a test is to:

1. study the accompanying test manual and the test itself and become thoroughly acquainted with it before administering.

2. check on needed materials, such as extra pencils, markers, stop watch.

3. schedule test at time of day so as not to conflict with recess or lunch period.

4. notify office of time of testing so as to avoid phone calls and visitors.

5. arrange with another teacher (first grade testing) to take part of group when testing small group.

6. make certain of no interruptions by posting sign on door: TESTING.

7. make sure the student is seated comfortably.

8. explain and give reasons for giving test to students and answer all questions before the test is given.

9. establish atmosphere conducive to good work.

10. make sure students follow directions carefully, and keep timing accurate.

11. make notations of individual student's work habits, such as lost time, emotional upset, tiring, copying, or misunderstanding of directions.

12. keep constant check on test performance.

II. Informal Reading Inventory

A. A teacher's role in administering an informal test is to:

1. be familiar with the specific test, scoring procedures, and how to determine reading level.

2. select a secluded area where examiner will not be disturbed.

3. prepare constructive work for other pupils.

4. prepare a comfortable physical setting.

5. establish rapport between examiner and child.

6. motivate for reading.

7. observe pupil's behavior and record.

8. record child's errors during the oral reading.

9. record symptoms of head movement (H. M.), lip movement (L. P.), finger pointing (F. P.), vocalization (V.) and subvocalization (S. V.)

10. check comprehension.

Interpretation of Tests

I. Standardized Tests

Manuals may include medians, quartiles, percentiles, stanines, or charts for grade and age norms for ease in interpreting test scores.

Percentiles by grades are used to report test results. They show a student's standing in a subject area in relation to that of others at his grade level. The percentile also shows the student his present progress in that area as related to his previous standing on another form or level of that test. These are written on the pupil's cumulative record and are more meaningful than raw scores.

Stanines are being used as a means of interpreting and reporting test results. The following report shows results of a standardized testing program by means of stanines.

Percentiles	Stanines	Interpretation
above 96	9	outstandingly superior
89-96	8	above average
77-88	7	slightly above average
60-76	6	high average
40-60	5	average
23-40	4	low average
11-23	3	somewhat below average

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4-11	2	below average
below 4	1	critically below average

Intelligence and achievement scores are converted to stanines as shown above. Teachers are also able to interpret tests more accurately by comparing results on two forms of a test to show the amount of progress a student has made with instruction.

Norm refers to the average based on samplings of many factors. If test scores are to mean much, the norm must be based upon extensive samples. It must be based on thousands which include a cross section. It is important that the cross section should be representative from across the country, representing cultural differences, different socio-economic backgrounds and range in intelligence.

Establishment of norms is a very important step in the standardization of a test. Test scores cannot be interpreted without norms, because an individual's score can be evaluated only by comparing it with scores of others. The norm is normal or average performance. Thus, if normal eight year old children complete twelve out of fifty problems correctly on a particular test, the eight year old norm on this test corresponds to a raw score of 12. The raw score is meaningless until evaluated in terms of a suitable set of norms. Norms indicate the average performance and the relative frequency of varying degrees of deviation above and below the average. Thus, it is also possible to evaluate different degrees of superiority and inferiority by use of norms.

II. Informal Tests

Informal appraisal instruments are useful in collecting data about pupils. These informal techniques of evaluation form the backbone of classroom teaching day by day. They help the teacher assist the pupils'

learning progress by identifying what to teach, when to teach, and how to teach each child.

The teacher should recognize the limitations of tests, and if her judgment of a pupil's ability differs from his test rating, she should not necessarily believe that either her judgment or the test is at fault.

The dual check of test ratings and teacher's judgment is a better measure than either alone. Tests do not relieve a teacher from the responsibility of constantly thinking about and evaluating pupil's abilities. They simply serve as a helpful means of rechecking, and pinpointing cases where discrepancies necessitate re-evaluation.

Informal tests help the teacher understand individual differences, form a basis for grouping, and find children who need extended practice in certain areas. Data secured from informal tests help determine how well a pupil performs in some particular skill for which there is no standardized test.

Application of Tests

I. Method Of Appraisal:

A. Tests of vision

B. Medical examinations

C. Standardized tests of capacity and reading achievement

D. Informal tests and inventories at any grade level

E. Observation

F. Diagnosis through oral reading

G. Interviews

H. Psychological tests

I. Dated anecdotal records

J. Dated samples of pupils' work

II. Methods For Application Of Test Results:

A. Determination of current status of the class as a whole

B. Comparisons with national norms

C. Determination of current status of individuals

D. Organization of classroom

1. Group instruction within a class

a. Initial determination of groups

b. Mobility of grouping

2. Individual instruction

a. Remedial instruction of the retarded reader

b. Enriched instruction of the superior reader

c. Individual guidance of all pupils

d. Evaluation of progress toward goal attainment

e. Ascertainment of need for further testing

When using tests in grouping for more effectiveness, students may be grouped in various ways. The teacher's judgment about grouping within the class should be aided by an analysis of the subtests as well as total test scores. It is important to make sure that students who are extremely low in an important aspect of reading, such as making inferences, are scheduled for special help, even though they may be up to average in the test as a whole. It is necessary for a teacher to be constantly on guard against stigmatizing pupils who need help.

PART V

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Research indicates a crucial need for continued professional and educational growth of teachers in reading. Opportunity for growth can be provided through in-service programs.

If the improvement of the total reading program in schools is to be successful, it is recommended that each school have an in-service committee, that the administrator be cognizant of the needs of his staff in improving reading instruction and that the staff be accorded his full cooperation and guidance in planning and carrying out the program. To be of ultimate service such programs, according to Rossini and DeCarlo, should be professionally planned and related to the specific needs of the teachers concerned.

To help achieve this on-the-job growth, this section of the guide has been prepared for use in planning and implementing in-service programs in reading. It suggests some ways of determining teacher needs and kinds of in-service programs through which these needs can be met.

The in-service program should meet the immediate and long-range needs of the teachers and should effect change on the part of the participants in attitudes, ideas, techniques, innovations, and methods. Suggested avenues through which the desired changes may be sought are conferences, visitations, demonstrations planned on a grade level, interest groups, and professional reading.

In organizing the in-service program, attention should be focused

on the types of problems faced as identified by individual schools. In-service days may be planned whereby the faculty makes an effort to improve the teaching of reading.

Several schools may be confronted with similar reading problems. In such instances, a committee composed of representatives from each school concerned could plan in-service programs whereby interested groups would meet together to study the problems.

If reading problems are extensive, then a district-wide program may be planned.

To insure maximum growth for all teachers, in-service education should provide guidance for new and experienced teachers. Many understandings and techniques for successful teaching of reading can best be learned while teachers are on the job.

New teachers should become familiar with the philosophy of the school district, raise questions concerning the reading program, talk with persons responsible for assisting new personnel and be made aware of opportunities for acquiring additional help during the term. Programs for experienced teachers should be based upon the problems which teachers identify.

I. Suggested In-Service Activities

A. Observations and demonstrations

Teachers observe actual classroom situations taught by a consultant or classroom teacher at the beginning of the school year or during the term.

Opportunities are provided for new teachers and for others who express a specific need to visit classrooms in different buildings or systems in which teachers are competent in the area in which help is desired.

B. Workshops

Teachers with similar reading problems work with consultants

and supervisors in identifying their needs and setting up plans of action to meet their individual needs.

C. Visitations

Visits to classrooms where experimentation and research are having an impact on the educational program can prove expecially helpful.

D. Discussion groups

Reading and sharing professional materials help keep teachers informed of the new ideas in education. Groups may include an entire faculty, a grade level, or an interest group.

E. Reading courses for credit

College courses are offered during the term for credit.

F. Exploring and learning to use new materials

Teachers should have opportunities to browse through new materials, experiment with and learn to operate new teaching equipment.

G. Educational television

Educational television offers one of the major sources of in-service help for teachers. New materials and approaches are presented through this means.

H. Publishers' consultants

Publishers' consultants demonstrate procedures which enable teachers to use texts and teaching aids more successfully.

I. In-service for credit

The School District with the cooperation of the State Department of Education offers in-service activities which may be used to obtain credit toward certificate renewal.

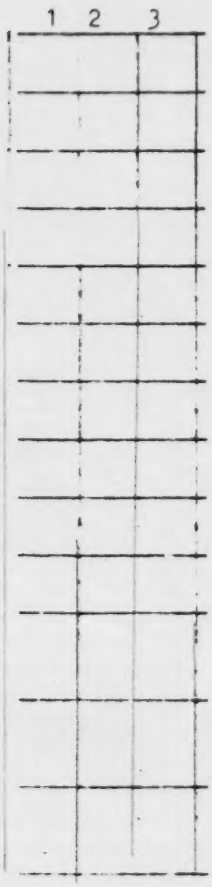
II. Forms Used In Determining Types Of In-Service Needed

A. Teaching techniques

Place a check in the block at the left to indicate the extent the following techniques are practiced in your program:

1. Always 2. Sometimes 3. Never

1	2	3	
			1. Reading difficulties are identified early by:
			a. Individual tests (standardized)
			b. Group tests
			c. I. Q. tests
			d. Individual Reading Inventories
			e. Reading readiness tests
			f. Cumulative records
			g. Teacher made tests
			h. Other evaluative materials
			2. The classroom is well-organized for effective teaching
			3. The pupils are grouped as early as possible during the first month of school.
			4. The pupils are grouped on distinctive levels for instruction.
			5. Materials are provided for all instructional levels.
			6. Grouping is flexible.
			7. The pupils read silently before orally.
			8. Adequate time is given to teach:
			a. Comprehension skills
			b. Paragraph comprehension
			c. Sentence comprehension
			d. Word comprehension
			e. Selecting key words



f. Main ideas

g. Inferences

h. Word Attack skills

i. Rate

j. Locational skills

k. Directed reading

l. Poetry (pupil and teacher)

m. Creative stories

n. Creative art

9. Evaluation and progress records are kept and placed in cumulative records.

10. The parents are informed of the instructional reading level of the child.

11. Parents are informed as to ways they may help in the improvement of reading.

B. Teaching materials and equipment

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Place a check in the block at the left of the appropriate number to indicate the extent to which your program reflects each of the following characteristics:

1. Almost always
2. Most of the time
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom or never
5. Undecided
6. Not desirable

1. Many materials and equipment are used.
2. Children are instructed in basal on own reading level.
3. Basal readers are used only at school and for instructional purposes.
4. Supplementary materials are made available on free reading level to be enjoyed outside the instructional program.
5. Informal and recreational supplementary materials are adequately supplied based on individual needs.
6. Enrichment materials are provided on the reading level of each child:
   a. SRA
   b. Readers' Digest
   c. Weekley Reader
   d. Film and film strips
   e. Library
   f. Book Center
   g. Bulletin Boards
   h. Charts
   i. Other teachermade materials
   j. Newspaper

C. Teacher preparation and practices

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Place a check in the block at the left of the appropriate number to indicate the extent to which your program reflects each of the following characteristics:

1. Almost always
2. Most of the time
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom or never
5. Undecided
6. Not desirable

1	2	3	4	5	6	
						1. The teacher is thoroughly familiar with the basal text and teacher's guide
						2. The teacher knows the developmental sequence of skills and how to teach them.
						3. The teacher places special emphasis on making every reading experience pleasurable and profitable.
						4. The teacher defines clearly and precisely what is to be done.
						5. The teacher prepares well in advance to assure success in communication.
						6. The teacher plans units of work with grade level teachers.
						7. The teacher plans for creativity which is essential for individual classroom needs.
						8. The teacher strives to create within each individual a conscious need for improvement.
						9. The teacher works continuously to develop a feeling of security and warmth in the classroom.
						10. The teacher evaluates the program in terms of a continuous learning process on his part.

D. Kinds of in-service activities

Choose any five and number them in the order which will be most helpful.

____ 1. Observation and Demonstrations

____ 2. Workshops

____ 3. Visitations

____ 4. Professional Reading and Discussion

____ 5. Reading Courses for Credit

____ 6. Exploring and Learning to Use New Materials and Equipment

____ 7. Educational Television

____ 8. Publishers' Consultants

____ 9. Professional Organizations

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E. Evaluation of teacher attitude toward in-service

Evaluate your in-service program on each item listed by drawing a circle around the appropriate number on the five point rating scale.

1. Always
2. Most of the time
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

1. Topics selected met my needs and were of concern to me.	1 2 3 4 5
2. Topics discussed were timely in the sense of being my most urgent needs.	1 2 3 4 5
3. Practical ideas were discussed and suggestions for classroom application were offered.	1 2 3 4 5
4. The leadership role was shared by teachers and administrators.	1 2 3 4 5
5. The organizational plan was appropriate for the work that was to be accomplished.	1 2 3 4 5
6. A variety of resources was made available for use in the program.	1 2 3 4 5
7. Originality and creativity in teaching reading were encouraged.	1 2 3 4 5
8. The overall plan of the program was defined clearly and was understood by the participants.	1 2 3 4 5
9. Consultants who worked in the program were aware of needs and made worthwhile contributions.	1 2 3 4 5
10. Pupil performance in and enjoyment of reading improved as a result of the in-service program.	1 2 3 4 5
11. The level of instruction in the classroom improved as a result of the in-service program.	1 2 3 4 5

PART VI

MATERIALS

I. Professional

Altick, Richard D. Preface to Critical Reading, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1960.

The author emphasizes the relationship between critical reading and effective writing. There are many examples and exercises to develop inductive and deductive reasoning, sentence building, and paragraph development.

Austin, Mary C., Coleman Morrison et al., The First R: The Harvard Report on Reading in the Elementary School, New York: Macmillan and Co., 1963.

The contents of this book is based on an extensive national survey of reading instruction. The reports present an overview of current views and practices. Forty-five specific recommendations for strengthening instructions are given.

Barbe, Walter B. Educators Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961.

This book presents a personalized reading program but can be useful to the classroom teacher in determining reading levels of pupils, in selecting reading material for children, and in using skills check list. For a personalized reading program, the book tells how to organize a classroom, collect materials, keep records, plan activities, and evaluate. Advantages and disadvantages are described.

Betts, Emett A. Foundations of Reading Instruction, New York: American Book Company, 1957.

This book deals with the major problems of the classroom teacher: how to identify individual needs and how to provide for them. The range of individual differences, reading readiness, semantics, systematic sequences in the reading process, and how to discover reading levels are topics discussed.

Bloomfield, Leonard and Clarence L. Barnhart. Let's Read, Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1961.

The authors offer a method of teaching reading showing a

relationship between the printed words and the sounds for which the letters are signs. They present established patterns of letters and sounds regardless of meaning. This is a linguistic approach.

Bond, Guy L. and Tinker, Miles A. Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction, Second Edition, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.

This book is intended as a text for graduate courses in remedial reading. Causes of reading disabilities are analyzed, remedial procedures suggested, and materials evaluated.

Bond, Guy L. and Eva Bond Wagner. Teaching the Child to Read. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

The authors emphasize the use of the basal reader. The teacher's importance is revealed through a discussion of how she initiates instruction, uses diversified methods of instruction, fosters growth, encourages the use of reading, and recognizes instructional needs.

Brogan, Peggy and Lorene K. Fox. Helping Children Read. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961.

A practical approach to individualized reading. The focus throughout the book is on practical help for teachers facing the problem of challenging and meeting the needs of individual children, whose interests, abilities, and ways of learning vary widely.

Carillo, Lawrence W. Informal Reading Readiness Experiences. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964.

The book's main purpose is to provide teachers with informal readiness experiences in sequence and in sufficient variety to help each pupil achieve reading readiness.

Chall, Jeanne. Learning to Read: The Great Debate. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967.

Dr. Chall presents significant facts from a three-year research study in a discussion of how to begin reading instruction, when to begin, what instructional materials to use, and how to organize for instruction. Comparisons are made between different approaches in beginning reading and various basal programs are analyzed.

Cleary, Florence Damon. Blueprints for Better Reading. Bronx, N. Y.: H. W. Wilson Co., 1957.

School programs for promoting skill and interest in reading are presented. There are three chapters concerning the

technique and materials for teaching "understanding and values" through books.

Cordts, Anna D. Phonics for the Reading Teacher. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.

The author provides the teacher with a background in the science of phonetics as a foundation for reading instruction. There is a discussion of sound-to-letter and letter-to-sound relationships of vowels and consonants, and of the function of phonics in identifying words in reading.

Dawson, Mildred A. and Henry A. Bamman. Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1963.

This book has as its purpose to present specific and practical suggestions for teaching reading. Readiness at each level of the curriculum, skills development in the basal program and subject areas, and effective ways for meeting individual differences are presented.

DeBoer, John J. and Martha Dallmann. The Teaching of Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964.

A detailed discussion of activities for developing reading abilities follows an explanation of conditions necessary for reading growth.

Dechant, Emerald V. Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Disability. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

This handbook covers every type of reading disability with recommendations for effective methods for dealing with specific reading problems.

Dechant, Emerald V. Improving the Teaching of Reading. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964.

The author discusses the nature of the reading process, the nature of the learner, how to develop readiness for reading, steps in the reading process, and how the skills are advanced.

Durkin, Delores. Phonics and the Teaching of Reading. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1965.

The author encourages the development of readiness for phonics through a knowledge of the names of letters, ability in auditory and visual discrimination, speaking and listening vocabularies, and the ability to recognize some whole words in their written form.

Durrell, Donald D. Improving Reading Instruction. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1956.

A practical handbook in which emphasis is placed on a good developmental program. It discusses the reading-readiness program, analyzing reading needs, grouping, oral reading, silent reading, word analysis, word skills, study skills, and the uses of reading.

Fernald, Grace M. Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects. New York: McGraw-Hall Book Co., Inc. 1943.

A report of psychological experiments in which the main object was the development of skills in basic school subjects. Laboratory findings were applied to general school conditions. This book is a description of Dr. Fernald's methods in working with pupils who are word blind but seem to have no organic defect. There is also an account of her methods in teaching arithmetic and spelling.

Fries, Charles C. Linguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.

A scholar explores the relationship between linguistic research and reading instruction. Chapter Two gives an overview of developments in linguistics from 1820 to 1960.

Gray, William S. On Their Own in Reading. Chicago: Scott-Foresman and Co., 1948.

The book makes suggestions for steps to use in giving a pupil independence in attacking new words.

Gans, Roma. Common Sense in Teaching Reading. New York: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1963.

This is a general and practical book on teaching reading, from the influence of the home up to the high school years, but concentrating on beginning and developmental reading in elementary school. Illustrative cases are included.

Harris, Albert J. Effective Teaching of Reading. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1962.

This book contains an up-to-date, concise explanation of the elementary reading program. There are chapters on child development, the goals of a modern reading program, important features of a readiness program, and steps in skill development in primary, middle, and upper grades.

Harris, Albert J. (editor) Casebook on Reading Disability. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1970.

A collection of sixteen case reports by well-known specialists. Thorough discussions of diagnosis, remedial treatment, evaluation and follow-up information of each problem is

given. The book is recommended as good personal reading for professional people interested in reading disabilities.

Harris, Albert J. How to Increase Reading Ability, Fifth Edition, York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1970.

The author deals with the following topics: factors influencing readiness, the teaching of beginning reading, individualized and group reading, the causes of reading disability, how to develop word recognition skills, and how to foster reading interests and tastes.

Hay, Julie and Charles E. Wingo. Reading With Phonics. New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1960.

Reading With Phonics presents a clear, direct, and effective method for helping children to recognize words. The author feels that a systematic development of a knowledge of phonics is the best key to reading the majority of words in the English language. Auditory, visual, and kinesthetic are the methods for introducing phonetic elements.

Heilman, Arthur. Phonics in Proper Perspective. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1964.

The book's purpose is to provide both the experienced and the prospective teacher with materials to lead to a better understanding of the purpose and limitations of phonics instruction, and steps in phonics analysis.

Heilman, Arthur. Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1968.

The author discusses ways to relate linguistics to language arts education. Presented are new and expanded approaches to beginning reading, problems and solutions in individualized instruction. Eleven principles are given for testing any method or techniques in teaching reading.

Herr, Selma. Learning Activities for Reading. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Publishing Company, 1961.

The book's purpose is to provide suggestions for developing purposeful activities in reading. These activities may be for the entire class, small groups, or the individual child.

Herrick, Virgil E. and Marcella Nerbovig. Using Experience Charts With Children. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1964.

A variety of practical ways to help children write and prepare meaningful experience charts. Its purpose is to give children greater confidence for writing, and to show the importance these charts play in the elementary school program.

Hester, Kathleen B. Teaching Every Child to Read. New York: Harper & Rowe, 1964.

This book discusses factors affecting children's growth in reading, child growth and development, development of fundamental reading skills, and characteristics of an effective reading program.

Hildreth, Gertrude. Teaching Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1958.

The author presents the reading process with reading interpreted as a form of communication and as a part of a linguistic experience. The reading process, changing methods, techniques for instruction in the beginning stages, the primary, intermediate, and upper grades are discussed.

Kottmeyer, William. Teacher's Guide for Remedial Reading. New York: Webster Division, McGraw-Hall Book Company, 1959.

Practical suggestions for diagnosing and remediating reading difficulties. Appropriate for corrective reading by the classroom teacher as well as for the reading specialist working outside the classroom.

Lefevre, Carl A. Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964.

This is a basic introduction to structural linguistics and some of the application needed for effective teaching of the skills of literacy at all levels. The author stresses the fact that young people must be taught how to read meaning-bearing patterns as wholes.

Lee, Doris M. and R. V. Allen. Learning to Read Through Experience. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

The authors describe a plan for developing reading ability as an integral part of developing all communication skills. Meaning and understanding must have their bases in the experience of the individual. As each child builds his own reading material, he develops an adequate background of experience.

McCullough, Constance, Ruth Strang, and A. Traxler. Improvement of Reading. McGraw-Hill Co., 1961.

This is a most concise survey of study-skills literature to 1961. The authors consider a broad range of topics; include a forty four item bibliography.

McKee, Paul and William K. Durr. Reading A Program of Instruction for the Elementary School. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966.

The author gives a detailed description of a carefully built reading program for elementary schools. He discusses problems which the young pupil encounters in reading, how to unlock words, how to develop critical reading, and the use of children's literature.

Miel, Alice (Ed.) Individualizing Reading Practices. New York: Columbia University Press, 1958.

This monograph discusses the meaning of individualizing reading and the problems encountered. There is emphasis on the various practices used in individualizing the reading program.

Money, John. Reading Disability. Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1962

This gives the progress and research dealing with dyslexia.

Monroe, Marion and Bernice Rogers. Foundations for Reading. Chicago: Scott-Foresman & Co., 1964.

The book covers the pre-reading period, provides guidance from the time the beginner enters school until he is ready for printed materials. It helps clarify the relationship between child development and learning to read.

Roswell, Florence and Gladys Natchez. Reading Disability. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1964.

Drawing on their experiences as educators and psychologists, the authors examine the complex causes of reading disability and suggest practical methods of treatment. Their basic concerns are: (1) that along with the procedures the reading problem needs close attention; (2) that the pupil become increasingly aware of how he can use his strengths constructively in remedial work.

Russell, David H. Children Learn to Read, Second Edition. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961.

There is a good overview of the total reading program. The author gives history, research, and knowledge of childhood as the foundation on which reading is built. This second edition gives emphasis to phonics in word recognition and to the process of critical reading.

Russell, David H. and Elizabeth F. Russell. Listening Aids Through the Grades. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1966.

There are one hundred ninety activities suggested for the teacher's use in developing auditory skills at kindergarten, primary, and intermediate levels.

Russell, David H. and Etta E. Karp. Reading Aids Through the Grades. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1965.

This book contains three hundred developmental reading activities to reinforce pupils' reading.

Schell, Leo M. and Paul C. Burns (Ed.) Remedial Reading an Anthology of Sources. Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1968.

This anthology includes source materials from leading reading specialists. Articles deal with reading disabilities, identification, diagnosis, prognosis, principles of instruction, instructional procedures, readers with emotional problems, instructional materials, and organizing and administering a remedial reading program.

Scott, Louise Binder and J. J. Thompson. Phonics. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962.

The organization of this book follows the tranditional patterns for the development of the language-communication skills, with chapters on "Phonics in Listening Activities," "Phonics in Speaking Activities," "Phonics in Reading Activities," and "Phonics in Writing Activities."

Sister Mary Caroline. Breaking the Sound Barrier. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960.

The author describes the techniques she has used in the teaching of reading. This method of analysis has the pupil to survey a word, think about it, and report about it. There are four parts: the consonants, the vowels, the techniques of dealing with vowels, and application of the techniques.

Smith, Henry P. and Emerald V. Dechant. Psychology in Teaching Reading. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1961.

This book contains a brief summary of opinion and research on bibliography and a classified list of juvenile books that may have therapuetic values.

Smith, Nila Banton. American Reading Instruction. Newark, Delaware: I R A, 1965.

A history of successive movements in American reading instruction with emphasis on recent developments. Teachers and consultants may find help in analyzing techniques and materials. It may be useful to committees preparing courses of study.

Smith, Nila Banton. Graded Selections for Informal Reading Diagnosis. New York: New York University Press, 1963.

The book's purpose is to help teachers make a functional

inventory of each pupil's instructional reading level and of skills in comprehension, interpretation and word recognition. The book includes reproduced selections (including pictures) from pre-primer to third grade...from the "Learning to Read" series of readers.

Smith, Nila Banton. Reading Instruction for Today's Children. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

The author presents many aspects of current reading theory and research in approaches to reading, steps in skill development, how to develop interest and taste in reading literature.

Spache, George D. & Evelyn B. Spache. Reading in the Elementary School, Second Edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1969.

The author analyzes leading theories, notes their advantages and limitations, and, then, points out a specific combined approach.

Spache, George D. Toward Better Reading. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1963.

This book can serve as a single source book summarizing the most important findings of research. All major problems of reading are presented. The pros and cons of major issues are discussed and theories are evaluated.

Strang, Ruth and Dorothy Kendall Bracken. Making Better Readers. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957.

This book describes the development of reading and the major methods of teaching reading in the elementary schools. The five periods of reading development, word recognition and word meaning development, and how to read in the content field are well presented.

Strang, Ruth, Constance M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler. The Improvement of Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961.

The authors give a comprehensive view of the reading problem. They present specific details of groups and individual instruction, discuss the complexity of the reading process and the specific skills needed for maturity in reading.

Thompson, Lloyd A. Reading Disability. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1966.

The author reviews the history of our understanding of developmental dyslexia and the concepts regarding its causes. There are suggestions for recognizing those persons with reading disability and recommendations for remedying the handicap.

Tinker, Miles A. and Constance McCullough. Teaching Elementary Reading. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1962.

The purpose of this book is to improve understanding and to suggest better methods and practices in teaching reading in a balanced and sequential program in the elementary school.

Umans, Shelley. New Trends in Reading Instruction. New York: Columbia University Press, 1963.

This book presents some of the newer instructional approaches to reading. There are chapters on how to plan a school-wide program, instructional practices in the subject disciplines and the use of programmed materials.

Veatch, Jeannette. Individualizing Your Reading Program. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959.

This book is divided into two parts. Part I describes and supports an individualized reading program in which pupils choose what they read, grouping is short and for specific purposes, and sharing periods are provided. Part II is a collection of examples of individualized reading in action.

Whipple, Gertrude and Millard H. Black (comp.) Reading for Children Without--Our Disadvantaged Youth. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1966.

This is a compilation of better practices currently used. It would be of value to schools wishing to make program adjustments for the culturally disadvantaged.

Zintz, Miles V. Corrective Reading. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1966.

The purpose of this book is to initiate the teacher into specific practices required in corrective reading. It deals with these subjects: reading problems in the classroom, informal tests the classroom teacher can use, scheduling, standardized tests and helps for the language-handicapped child.

Zintz, Miles V. The Reading Process. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1970.

The primary purpose of this book is to help the classroom teacher to be a diagnostic teacher of reading every day. Various approaches to good diagnostic testing and teaching are discussed.

II. Instructional

American Book Company. Johnson, Kress, McNeil et al: The Read

System (each book available with or without numerical grade designation)

First Step (Before Reading 1)

Second Step (Before Reading 2)

Third Step (Before Reading 3)

And So You Go! (Level A)

Be On The Go! (Level B)

Can You? (Level C)

Days and Ways (Level D)

Each and All (Level E)

GRADE TWO

Far and Away (Level F)

Gold and Silver (Level G)

GRADE THREE

High and Wide (Level H)

Ideas and Images (Level I)

GRADE FOUR

Joys and Journeys (Level J)

GRADE FIVE

Kings and Things (Level K)

GRADE SIX

Launchings and Landings (Level L)

The Read Series is a nongraded all new basic reading program from Levels Before Reading through Level L. This is a new approach in which the language the child uses is the language he meets in his early readers. New words which are grouped according to linguistic, phonic and structural elements enable the child to make generalizations which can be applied in decoding. Skill Pages are

provided to help develop vocabulary skills and comprehension skills. The pupil encounters materials that range from simple realistic pre-primer stories to the works of great literary masters.

In addition to Teacher's Guides, there are achievement-placement tests, word recognition card kits, phonics kits, comprehension kits and skill books.

Ginn and Company. Clymer et al: Reading 360
Consultant in Creativity--Dr. E. Paul Torrance
Consultant in Linguistics--Dr. Roger W. Shuy

Primary (1--10)

Level 1: Learning About Sounds and Letters
(Kit of manipulative materials)

Level 2: My Sound and Word Book
(Consumable write-in softbound text)

Level 3: A Duck is a Duck (softbound)

Level 4: Helicopters and Gingerbread (softbound)

Level 5: May I Come In?

Level 6: Seven Is Magic

Level 7: The Dog Next Door and Other Stories

Level 8: How It Is Nowadays

Level 9: With Skies and Wings

Level 10: All Sorts of Things

Middle School Program

Level 11: The Sun That Warms

Level 12: On The Edge

Level 13: To Turn A Stone

In addition to Teacher's Editions, there are Level Tests for Levels 1-13, skills handbooks, reading progress charts, and basic card sets.

In this new reading program there are three main objectives: de-coding, creativity, and literature. To meet these objectives, the

authors have developed nine vertical skill strands: decoding, vocabulary, comprehension, creative development, literary understanding and appreciation, language, study skills, sensitivity to social-moral values, and acquisition of knowledge and information. The series is designed to enable the child to develop early independence in reading. It has a linguistically sound word analysis program and reading selection of high quality and variety. The program is equally appropriate for use in either ungraded or the conventional graded school. Levels 11-13 maintain and expand the vertical skills strands of the primary levels with emphasis on structural analysis, word meaning, derivations, usage, syntax, and vocabulary development. These three levels also promote literary excellence by providing the student with a wide selection of reading selections written by some of America's best known authors.

Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich. Early et al: The Bookmark Reading Program (1960-1968)

Readiness
Look, Listen, and Learn

Grade 1
Sun Up (Pre-primer 1)
A Happy Morning (Pre-primer 2)
A Magic Afternoon (Pre-primer 3)
Sun and Shadow (Primer)
Together We Go (First Reader)

Grade 2
A World of Surprises (2-1 Reader)
Going Places, Seeing People (2-2 Reader)

Grade 3
Widening Circles (3-1 Reader)
Ring Around the World (3-2 Reader)

Grade 4
Goals in Reading (Skills Reader)
Much Majesty (Literature Reader)

Grade 5
Reading to Learn (Skills Reader)
Wider Than the Sky (Literature Reader)

Grade 6
Reading Power (Skills Reader)
First Splendor (Literature Reader)

This series contains three major components: Primary Readers, Skills Readers, and Literature Readers. Basic Skills are developed in the Primary Readers. Decoding and reading-study skills are developed sequentially. The program branches in two directions for the middle grader. Intensive skills lessons are continued in the Skills Readers through materials from informational books and textbooks. The Literature Readers help to develop literary appreciation. As aids to the program in addition to Teacher's Guides, there are duplicating masters, vocabulary boxes, word service boxes, test booklets, and workbooks.

Houghton Mifflin Company. Durr et al: The Houghton Mifflin Readers
Levels 1--12) (Pre Reading through Grade Six) 1970
Editorial Consultant: Paul McKee
Linguistic Adviser: Jack E. Kittell

Levels 1 and 2 (Pre Reading)
Getting A Head Start
Getting Ready to Read

Level 3 (Pre-primers)
3A--Tigers
3B--Lions
3C--Dinosaurs

Level 4 (Primer)
Rainbows

Level 5 (First Reader)
Signposts

Levels 6 and 7 (Grade 2)
(6) Secrets (first half of Grade 2)
(7) Rewards (second half of Grade 2)

Levels 8 and 9 (Grade 3)
(8) Panorama (first half of Grade 3)
(9) Fiesta (second half of Grade 3)

Level 10 (Grade 4)
Kaleidoscope

Level 11 (Grade 5)
Images

Level 12 (Grade 6)
Galaxies

The Houghton Mifflin Readers have combined contemporary content with a classroom-proved instructional program. Based on recent linguistic research, instruction in contracted forms, inflectional endings, intonational understanding and other linguistic elements help to make clear the connections between speech and print. There are four major behavioral objectives: Decoding Skills, Comprehension Skills, Reference and Study Skills, and Literary Appreciation Skills. The 12 levels in the series extend from Pre Reading through Grade Six. The program includes correlated workbooks and tests. For supporting materials in addition to Teacher's Guides there are story boards, letter form boards, records, picture cards plastic objects, animated key cards, word cards, film strips and games.

Scott, Foresman and Co. Robinson, et al: Scott Foresman Reading Systems

	Level	Grade
SF Reading Systems	I	1
SF Reading Systems, Teacher's Read-Aloud Library	I	1
SF Reading Systems, Pre-primer 1	II	1
SF Reading Systems, Pre-primer 2	II	1
SF Reading Systems, Pre-primer 3	II	1
SF Reading Systems, Teacher's Read-Aloud Library	II	1
SF Reading Systems, Primer	III	1
SF Reading Systems, Teacher's Read-Aloud Library	III	1
SF Reading Systems, Book 1	IV	1
SF Reading Systems, Teacher's Read-Aloud Library	IV	1
SF Reading Systems	V-VI	2-1
SF Reading Systems, Teacher's Read-Aloud Library	V	2-1
SF Reading Systems, Teacher's Read-Aloud Library	VI	2-1
SF Reading Systems	VII-VIII	2-2
SF Reading Systems	IX-X	3-1
SF Reading Systems	XI-XII	3-2
Ventures		4
Vistas		5
Cavalcades		

In the Scott Foresman Reading Systems, each level is organized around a cluster of related skills. The program provides a transition from spoken language to written language. In the primary program there are twelve levels. Each level is organized around a cluster or related skills rather than a unit of related content. Teacher's Read-Aloud Libraries are essential in developing language arts skills in Levels I-VI. The program focuses on helping children develop the comprehension strategies needed in reading for many purposes in different kinds of content, including critical reading and study skills. Various core components are available to assist teachers in meeting the personal needs of children.

APPENDIX A

READING PROGRAMS

CORRECTIVE

Within the Classroom

Corrective teaching is an integral part of the instruction in every classroom. As teachers incorporate principles and procedures of effective diagnosis and corrective work into their daily classroom teaching, the distinction between classroom teaching and corrective teaching will diminish.

I. Diagnosis Of Reading Disability

A. Describe the reading performance in terms of vocabulary, word recognition, comprehension, and related abilities.

1. Observation (refer to Some Specific Observations to Check in Appendix, page 174)

2. Records

3. Teacher-made tests

4. Informal inventories

5. Formal group survey tests

B. Consider behavior, other than reading performance, which could be affecting reading progress.

1. Attitude and interests

2. Physical limitations

3. Personal adjustment characteristics

C. Analyze activities related to the process of reading in order to determine instructional level and to discover the specific deficiency.

II. Identification Of Appropriate Method For Corrective Procedure

A. Plan for systematic approach

B. Follow established principles of learning

C. Provide for learning preferences of children

D. Use broad range of techniques

Presented here are samples of corrective techniques useful in teaching some of the specific skills.

1. Auditory skills

   a. Matching rhyming words. On the left side of the page, display pictures of objects which exemplify the sound being taught; on the right side, display pictures of rhyming words. The children are to draw a line to the rhyming object.

   b. Identifying consonant sounds. Each child receives a work sheet depicting a playground scene. Most of the numerous objects displayed in the picture start with the initial consonant sounds already studied. With a red pencil, all the objects beginning with ___ are marked. With a blue pencil, all the objects beginning with ___ are marked. Only two or three sounds should be tested at once; the picture can be used again to test other sounds.

   c. Identifying vowel sounds. The children are to return to their readers to skim for words that fit into the categories given by the teacher. The categories for sorting are determined by the vowel sounds the teacher wants to stress. Examples: the long sound of ____, the short sound of ____, the controlled sound of _____.

   d. Recognizing syllable length. Give a list of mixed words containing one, two, and three-syllable words. The children are to unscramble the words and put them into three columns according to the number of syllables per word. They are to label the columns one, two and three syllable words.

2. Developing special discrimination--sequence.
   Display three objects before the children and demonstrate the naming of the first, next, and last object. Using any three objects, have them locate the sequence from left to right. The same technique can be used in teaching top-to-bottom sequence.

3. Motor skills--developing coordination.
   Some developmental activities to enhance coordination are cutting, painting, pasting, tracing, finger games, coloring, model making, bead stringing, and block building.

4. Sight vocabulary--developing sight vocabulary.

In a game played like Bingo, words are written in columns and rows. The children cover the words pronounced by the teacher; the first child to completely cover a column or row is the winner. This involves procedures that generally include discussion.

5. Structural analysis--recognizing affixes.
After reviewing rules about plurals, present the children with a list of representative nouns. The child is to write the root word next to the given plural, then tell in his own words the rule governing that root word and its plural.

6. Context clues--using context clues.
Present a short story of one paragraph with some words omitted. The children are to read each sentence and complete it with their own words or those from a given list.

7. Syllabication generalizations--using syllabication generalizations.
After several syllabication generalizations have been studied or reviewed, present a list of words for the child to divide. Have him letter the divided word with the correct rule governing its division.

8. Comprehension

   a. Matching definition and word symbols
   Prepare a work sheet of words and definitions which the children can match. The choice of words and definitions depends on the level of the group.

   b. Seeing literal and interpretive meaning
   Prepare questions to be presented to the student before he begins reading. These questions should provoke thought while reading. Some sample questions which enhance interpretation are "What did he mean by _____?"; "Do you think that this should have happened?"; "What makes this a good example of _____?" (some literary style); "Compare these two characters;" "Which character displayed the most courage?"; and so on.

   c. Following directions
   Present a work sheet listing directions which vary according to topics studied in each subject of the past week. The directions are to be completed but done in fun. Some examples are: Write the page number that tells where ants get their food (Science) Trace a picture of an ant. (Science) Copy the definition of a verb. (English) Give an example of a verb used in a sentence. (English) Copy three new words used this week. (Spelling) Draw a Pilgrim boy or girl. (Social Studies)

d. Rate--using little or no regression
Using a cover card, the child is to read from left to right across a page. As he reads, he blocks out what has been read.

e. Rate--adjusting to purpose
Questions involving material found in the index, table of contents, and chapter headings make good material for scanning exercises.

9. Oral reading skills--enunciating correctly
Bring attention to endings like: ing, d, and t. Practice words on flash cards could be used for help.

Outside the Classroom (Specialized)

The purpose of the Corrective Reading Program is to provide additional instruction beyond the developmental program to boys and girls in the elementary schools who are not achieving in reading in accordance with their reading potential.

Corrective reading is specific instruction for pupils whose reading difficulty is not due to serious causative factors but who give indications of being able to improve in reading if given additional concentrated help with reading skills.

The specialized instruction is given to pupils by corrective reading teachers outside the regular classroom either individually or in small groups. Corrective instruction does not take the place of regular classroom instruction but complements it. It is very important to the child that remediation efforts of the corrective reading teacher closely correlate with those of the classroom teacher.

I. Organization Of Corrective Reading Program

A. Criteria for selection of pupils

1. Pupils, with a disability in reading, are selected from all grades of the elementary schools, excluding the first grade, for specialized reading instruction.

2. A pupil is screened initially on the basis of teacher observation and cumulative records.

3. A pupil is selected for corrective instruction if he has average ability (I. Q. scores of 90 and above) and is achieving from six months to two years below grade level.

4. A pupil is selected for the specialized instruction whose reading disability is neither due to any deep-seated emotional or psychological problem nor to a severe physical or organic deficiency.

5. A pupil is selected who shows an indication of being able to profit from individual or small group instruction.

B. Diagnosis of reading difficulties

1. Purpose of diagnosis

a. To determine a child's unique reading needs

b. To give direction to planning the instructional program for each child

2. Diagnostic techniques

a. Referral

(1) Personal data

(2) Environmental, social, emotional, physical, intellectual and educational background data

(3) Classroom teacher's observation of problem and evaluation of child's performance

b. Testing program

(1) Intelligence test

(a) To determine reading level expectancy (number of years in school x I. Q.) plus 1.0 reading level expectancy

(b) To determine the amount of retardation between the pupil's instructional level and level of expectancy

(2) Standard survey test

(a) To measure progress (pretest and post-test)

(b) To determine existence of reading disability

(3) Word recognition test

(a) To test sight vocabulary

(b) To test ability to use word analysis skills

(4) Informal Reading Inventory

(a) To determine reading levels--independent, instructional, frustration, and listening

(b) To determine comprehension abilities

(5) Dolch basic sight vocabulary

(6) Phonics inventory

(7) Wepman auditory discrimination

(8) Various tests of visual discrimination

(9) Auditory acuity

(10) Visual acuity

(11) Referral to Special Services for psychological testing and/or speech and hearing testing (if necessary)

C. Basic principles underlying corrective reading instruction

1. Corrective instruction must be organized instruction. All plans must be lexible, however, and instruction must be re-directed as a child's needs change.

2. The program must be planned so that each child will begin at the level at which he can have immediate success.

3. The success must be real and the child must be acutely aware that he has been successful.

4. At all times the child must be made to feel that he is worthy of respect.

5. All corrective teaching must be highly individualized.

6. Through cooperative planning the child must be able to understand the purpose of instruction. All reading activities must be meaningful to the learner.

7. A large variety of materials on the child's instructional level should be used. However, what the teacher does with the materials is more significant than which materials are used.

8. No one method fits all children Methods of instruction should be selected which are in harmony with the best mode of learning for a given child.

9. A carefully designed follow-up program is necessary. A

corrective program requires an interaction between the reading specialist, the classroom teacher, parents, and school officials.

D. Evaluation of reading achievements

1. Measurement of gain made between comparable tests given before (pretest) and after (post-test) a corrective program.

2. Measurement of gain between the pre and post-test expressed as a percentage of the initial score.

Results of the reading programs are frequently evaluated by means of test scores, but significant progress may be made in areas that cannot be measured by tests. "The measurable is not necessarily the significant and the significant is not necessarily measurable."

(Dechant)

II. Professional Responsibilities Of Personnel Involved In Corrective Program

A. The corrective teacher

Functions:

1. Confers with principal and teachers involved to explain the objectives of the corrective program and to clarify the criteria for the selection of pupils.

2. Arranges with the teachers a schedule for diagnostic testing of pupils.

3. Studies cumulative folders and referrals of pupils.

4. Describes and interprets the diagnostic findings to the principal and teacher.

5. Plans a corrective program for each pupil based on the individual's strengths and weaknesses in reading.

6. Groups pupils for corrective classes according to needs rather than by actual grade placement.

7. Arranges with the principal a workable schedule of classes.

8. Establishes rapport with teachers and pupils.

9. Provides materials for each pupil and keeps teachers informed about materials used.

10. Arranges with principal for conferences with teachers. Informal conferences may be held at any time convenient to both reading teacher and classroom teacher.

11. Keeps teacher informed of the progress of each pupil.

12. Writes a final reading evaluation for each child to be placed in his cumulative folder.

B. The principal

Functions:

1. Provides a suitable and comfortable place for corrective classes.

2. Provides necessary equipment, including suitable desks or tables for pupils, a chalkboard, and a storage cabinet for corrective materials.

3. Provides the initial screening list with birthdates of each child.

4. Makes available (to corrective teacher) cumulative folders of pupils.

5. Informs classroom teachers of their responsibilities regarding attendance, punctuality, follow-up activities, and support of the program.

6. Provides time for formal conferences between reading teachers and classroom teachers at conclusion of corrective program in school.

7. Keeps informed of the progress of pupils through observation and conferences.

8. Assists in interpreting the program to teachers, librarians, parents, pupils, and any other personnel involved.

C. The classroom teacher

Functions:

1. Confers with reading teacher as to diagnostic findings and corrective program planned for each pupil.

2. Plans follow-up activities in classroom to complement the program which the corrective teacher has planned for the individual child, using materials at appropriate instructional level.

3. Confers often with reading teacher as to progress being made by each pupil.

4. Explains purpose of corrective program to participating pupils.

5. Interprets the corrective program as a privilege rather than

a punishment.

6. Avoids conflicts between pupil's particular interest and activities and the corrective reading class, if possible.

7. Encourages wide reading and assists pupils with book selection.

8. Schedules a conference with reading teacher (with approval of principal) at conclusion of corrective program in school.

9. Continues corrective procedures within the classroom after child has been dismissed from corrective class.

D. The librarian

Functions:

1. Obtains information as to independent reading levels of pupils in corrective classes.

2. Works with corrective teachers in the selection and screening of materials for individual pupils.

3. Guides the individual pupil in selection of materials for independent reading.

TITLE I READING PROGRAMS

Elementary and Middle Schools Compensatory Reading Centers

The Compensatory Reading Program is designed to give intensive individualized instruction in basic reading skills. The program does not replace regular classroom instruction but is a supplement for teaching specific skills to children who are not achieving in reading in accordance with their reading potential.

In addition to specific help in reading, group meetings are held with the students for the purpose of building positive attitudes about themselves, other people and reading.

Machines, tapes, filmstrips, books and a variety of other material are located in each center. After diagnostic testing, prescription sheets are made for each student. No child works on something he already knows, but is permitted to spend as much time as is necessary to master a specific skill.

Reading instruction is given to students by a certified reading teacher. This teacher has the assistance of a paraprofessional. The classroom teacher and the reading teacher work co-operatively to meet the needs of students.

I. Organization Of Title I Compensatory Reading Programs

A. Criteria for selection of pupils

1. Elementary Compensatory Reading. Pupils who are at least one grade level below their grade placement in reading, as tested by the California Reading test, are selected from third, fourth, and fifth grade in designated Title I schools.

2. Middle School Compensatory Reading. Pupils who are at least

two grade levels below their grade placement in reading, as tested by the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test, are selected from sixth and seventh grade in designated Title I schools.

3. Pupils who have been tested by Special Services and have a 70 I. Q. or below will not be included in compensatory reading.

B. Diagnosis of reading difficulties

1. Pupils enrolled in compensatory reading are given criterion reference diagnostic tests to determine deficiencies in basic skills.

2. The Slosson I. Q. and Gray Oral Reading Tests are used at the middle school level when further testing is needed.

C. Basic principles of Title I reading programs

1. Title I programs are designed for educationally deprived students.

2. Title I programs are compensatory in nature. They do not duplicate other programs offered to non-Title I children.

3. The compensatory reading program is conducted in a separate room designated as the reading center. Children are brought to this room from their regular classroom and instructed by a reading teacher and paraprofessional.

D. Evaluation

1. In the elementary schools the California Reading Test is used as a pre and post-test to determine gain or loss.

2. In the middle schools the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test is used as a pre and post-test to determine gain or loss.

3. Only those pupils enrolled for the full term of program operation are included in test results.

Alpha One Program

Alpha One is a decoding, multi-sensory beginning reading and language arts program. Alpha One is used as a supplement to the basal program.

The California Reading Test is administered to all second and third grade students in designated Title I schools. Those scoring below grade level are placed in the program. Those students placed in the Alpha Program are given a phonics inventory to determine specific deficiencies

in phonic skills.

The Alpha Program is conducted by the regular classroom teacher with the help of a paraprofessional.

APPENDIX B

A TEACHER'S CHECKLIST FOR A DIRECTED READING ACTIVITY*

1. ORIENTATION

_____Do the pupils locate the story in the table of contents?
_____Do I use a variety of aids--slides, charts, pictures, etc.?
_____Do I discuss teacher-pupil experiences pertinent to the subject?
_____Have I checked the experience background of my group?
_____Have I brought out the new words in oral discussion?
_____Are all the "new" concepts clarified?
_____Has interest been stimulated for reading the selection?
_____Have pupils helped to establish specific purposes for reading the selection?

2. GUIDED SILENT READING

_____Is the first reading silent rather than oral?
_____Am I observant of symptoms of reading difficulty?
_____Do the pupils identify difficult words?
_____Do I offer "on the spot" help to pupils with word recognition problems?
_____Do I record the word recognition difficulties to use in later word drills?
_____Is there a set purpose for reading each section of the lesson?
_____Do I check comprehension after the pupils have read silently?
_____Do I use a variety of question types in my comprehension checks:
_____factual _____inferential _____vocabulary
_____experiential

3. DEVELOPING WORD RECOGNITION SKILLS AND COMPREHENSION

_____Am I meeting the needs of the individual in my follow-up activities?
_____Do the needs as identified in step 2 serve as a basis for review and reteaching?
_____Do I use a variety of aids to word recognition--including phonics?
_____Do I guide children in the application of their phonetic skills in attacking unknown words?
_____Do pupils use glossaries and dictionaries where appropriate?

4. REREADING--Silent or Oral

_____Do I motivate the rereading by setting new purposes?

*It is assumed that the pupils are reading in basal readers at their instructional level.

_____Is the rereading smooth?
_____Do we reread to increase enjoyment, improve comprehension, entertain others, facilitate rhythm and expression, find specific information?

5. FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES

_____Do I provide opportunities for pupils to follow their individual interests?
_____Am I developing good study habits among my pupils?
_____Are we making proper use of audio visual aids, drama, writing activities, excursions, group activities, charts, extended reading?
_____Do I review and reteach skills?

Some Specific Observations to Check

Language abilities (vocabulary): meager _____, rich _____, accurate _____, incorrect _____.

Sentence structure: incomplete sentences _____, simple sentences _____. complex sentences.

Imagination: creative _____, bizarre _____.

Organization: recounted events in proper sequence _____, well organized _____, disjointed _____.

Sense of humor: enjoyment of humor _____, makes others laugh _____.

Method of word attack: sounds out words _____, tries to analyze structure _____, uses context clues _____.

Word recognition problems: skips words _____, reverses letters, words, phrases _____, substitutes words _____, guesses wildly _____.

Phrasing: reads word by word _____, reads in phrases or other thought units _____, loses place easily _____, reads clearly and with expression _____.

Comprehension: recognizes basic vocabulary at sight _____, shows an understanding of material read _____, see relationships and sequences of ideas _____, can discuss what he has read _____, shows originality in interpretation _____.

Approach to books: leafs through many books _____, chooses quickly _____, looks first at chapter titles and/or table of contents _____, pictures _____, printed pages _____; tends to choose small books _____, large books _____, a particular author or series _____, is rather uniform in choices _____, chooses a variety of books _____, chooses books at his own age level of interest _____, below _____, above _____; takes books home often _____, seldom _____, never _____; reads them through _____, can discuss what he has read _____, returns books on time _____, undamaged _____; asks for books he does not find on shelves_____.

Attitudes: eager to participate _____, interested _____, indifferent _____. withdrawn _____.

Creativity: inventive _____, shows imagination _____, is intellectually curious _____, shows maturity of interests _____.

ORAL READING CHECKLIST

Fluency

Poor phrasing or word-by-word _____

Speech difficulties _____

Monotone, lacking inflection _____

Pitch: too high or too low _____

Volume: too loud or too soft _____

Loses place, skips lines, uses finger _____

Ignores punctuation _____

Word Attack

Skips over unknown words _____

Needs frequent prompting _____

Substitutes by guessing from context _____

Substitutes irrelevant words _____

Spells or sounds letter by letter _____

Blends poorly _____

Mistakes mainly on small words _____

Fumbles, repeats frequently _____

Posture

Book too close, too far _____

Moves head _____

Cocks head or book _____

Squints or frowns _____

OUR OBJECTIVES FOR IMPROVING ORAL READING

1. Was the selected material interesting? _____
2. Did the child know which parts he was to read? _____
3. Was he well prepared? _____
4. Did he read loudly enough for all to hear? _____
5. Did he read as though he were talking? _____
6. Did he keep sufficient eye contact with his audience? _____
7. Did he read at an appropriate rate? _____
8. Did he use pauses well? _____
9. Did he use his voice well to let the listeners know what was happening? _____
10. Did he face his audience in a relaxed, comfortable position? _____

APPRAISAL OF TEACHER'S ABILITY AS AN ORAL READER

Many children have no one else who reads to them regularly; the teacher is their only oral reader. Consequently, she will want to appraise her ability as an oral reader by asking herself:

1. Do I read aloud to my class every day?
2. How good are my voice, pronunciation, posture, articulation, pitch, emphasis, and expression? Do I want them imitated as they now are?
3. How can I become a better oral reader realizing as I do, that the children will imitate me?
4. Do the children express pleasure when I read to them?
5. Do they like what I choose to read?
6. Am I using the time to introduce them to many kinds of selections? to many authors?
7. Am I relating the reading to current interests of the group and also using it as a means of introducing some new interests?
8. Am I using it to develop appreciation of poetry, old and new?
9. Am I making the fullest use of the available time, even the little left-over bits throughout the day?
10. Am I reading just my old childhood favorites or am I providing my pupils with a balanced literary diet: classic and modern; realistic and fanciful; truth and fiction; adventure and humor; poetry and prose?

MY READING DESIGN

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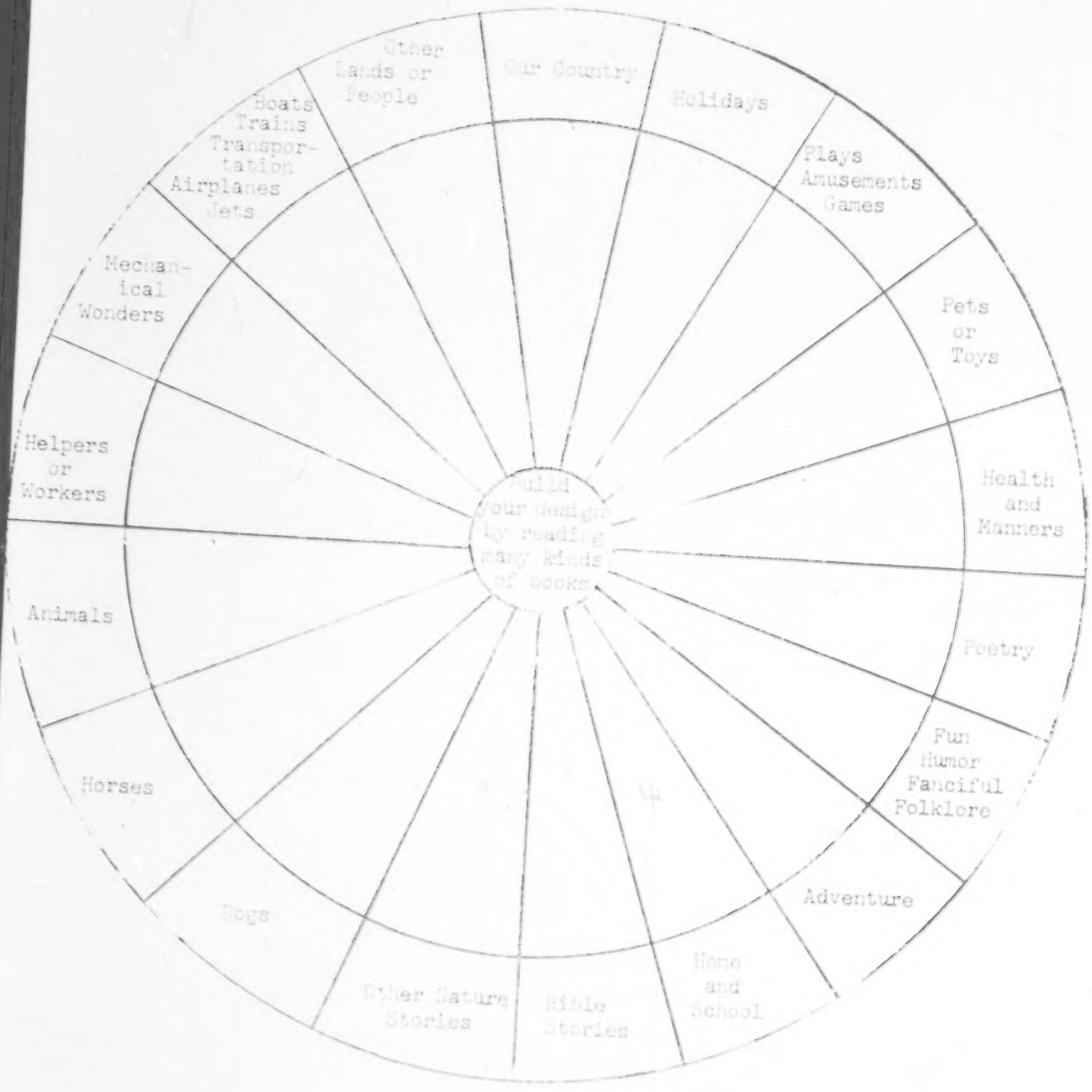

A LIST OF SUGGESTED READ-ALOUD TITLES

Grades 1 and 2

Aesop's Fables

Arbuthnot Anthology of Children's Literature

Bennett, Rainey, The Secret Hiding Place.
Mike Mulligan and Mary Ann, his steam shovel, work to dig the cellar for the Town Hall in a single day. After completing the work, Mary Ann cannot get out of the cellar.

Faito, Louise, The Happy Lion.
Amusing story of a lion who escapes from a French zoo and discovers that people who befriended him behind bars now run. He is lead back by the zoo keeper's son. Also, The Happy Lion Roars, The Happy Lion in Africa, and The Three Happy Lions.

Fischer, Hans, The Birthday.
The animals surprise their mistress, Old Lizzette, with a wonderful birthday celebration.

Flack, Marjorie, Wait for William.
William goes to watch a circus parade but becomes part of the parade while riding on an elephant.

Freeman, Don, Mop Top.
Not until he was mistaken for a mop did the hero of the story want to get a haircut.

Fritz, Jean, How to Read a Rabbit.
After many attempts, the little boy gets to borrow a rabbit from the animal lending library.

Gag, Wanda, Snippy and Snappy.
Two little field mice explore a house.

Gramatky, Hardie, Little Toot.
The story of how a playboy tugboat matures rapidly in a storm and comes to the rescue of a larger boat.

Le Seig, I Wish That I Had Duck Feet.
About a little boy and his wishes.

Mother Goose

McCloskey, Robert, Blueberries for Sal.
Little Sal and her mother go blueberry picking in Maine and meet a little bear and his mother. Mothers and children get mixed up in the excitement over blueberries.

McCloskey, Robert, One Morning in Maine.
Tells of a day in the life of a little girl who loses her first tooth.

Mac Gregor, Ellen, Theodore Turtle.
The story of a humorous, careless turtle who misplaces everything he puts his hands on.

Newberry, Clare, April's Kittens.
Tells of the problems faced by a child in making decisions concerning the choice of an old or a new pet.

Newberry, Clare, Marshmellow.
The story of an unusual relationship developed between two pets.

Potter, Beatrix, The Tale of Peter Rabbit.
Tells of the mistakes made by a rabbit who felt he knew best.

Suess, Dr.
Any Dr. Suess book for fanciful tales and imaginative illustrations.

Saver, Julia L., Mike's House.
Robert read the story about Mike Mulligan so many times that he called the library Mike's house. This leads to a misunderstanding when Robert gets lost.

Tresselt, Alvin, Hi, Mr. Robin.
Mr. Robin helps a little boy discover hidden signs of Spring.

Udry, Janice May, A Tree Is Nice.
This book tells why it is nice to have a tree.

Will and Nicolas, The Little Tiny Rooster.
Although he is very small, the little rooster proves to be very important.

Williams, Gwenoiva, Timid Timothy.
The story of how a little kitten learned to be brave.

Ward, Linda, The Biggest Bear.
Since all the barns in the valley had a bearskin on it, Johnny set out to get one for his barn. When he met a bear cub, instead of shooting, Johnny brought the bear home. The bear grew and grew, forcing Johnny to find a solution to this problem.

Warner, Gertrude, The Boxcar Children.
The adventures of four orphan children who are finally reunited with their grandfather.

Grades 3 and 4

Anderson, Hans Christian
Fairy tales are enjoyed by most children.

Atwater, Richard and Florence, Mr. Popper's Penguins.
Mr. Popper, a house painter, likes to read books about Polar explorations and even wrote letters to explorers. Admiral Drake sends a penguin to Mr. Popper. When other penguins arrive, the Poppers have quite a problem to solve.

Bishop, Ann, Riddle Raddle, Fiddle Faddle.
A collection of logical, yet funny, riddles old and new, that test the wits of all who read or hear them.

Brooks, Walter R., Freddy Goes to Florida.
The hero is a pig who assumes the role of advisor to his barnyard cronies. He writes songs on their way to spend the winter in Florida. Mystery and adventure abound in this and all the other Freddy books.

Butterworth, Oliver, Enormous Egg.
Nate Twitchell found an enormous egg in his henhouse. A dinosaur finally hatched from the egg. When the dinosaur grew too large to keep, he was sent to a museum in Washington.

Cleary, Beverley, Henry Huggins.
Henry feels that nothing ever happens to him. When a stray dog joins his life, all kinds of things happen.

Estes, Eleanor, Ginger Pye.
This is one of a series of stories about the Pye family. The boys earn the money to buy a dog, Ginger. Then, a mysterious stranger enters the children's lives. When Ginger disappears, the children feel the stranger must have something to do with it.

Estes, Eleanor, The Hundred Dresses.
Wanda, a little Polish girl who always wears the same faded blue dress, is ridiculed by the other children. Wanda tells everyone that she has hundreds of dresses. A very moving story.

Estes, Eleanor, The Moffats.
The lively adventures of the four Moffats and their mother, featuring Janey who stands on her head to get a new prospective on the world. Continued in the Middle Moffat and Rufus M.

Gates, Doris, The Cat and Mrs. Cary.
A highly entertaining story in which realistic and fanciful elements are combined. Widowed Mrs. Cary has just bought an old house in a seacoast town and she is not prepared to acquire a convalescent twelve year old nephew or a cat that talks only to her.

Gates, Doris, The Elderberry Bush.
A happy picture of family life with the rather mild adventures and mis-adventures of two little girls.

Grahame, Kenneth, The Wind in the Willows.
The adventures of a group of animals who live in the English countryside--bashful Mole, boastful Toad, practical Badger, and worldwise Rat.

Grimm, Jacob, Grimms' Fairy Tales.
Contains many, many of the tales that the Grimm brothers collected.

Haywood, Carolyn, Little Eddie.
The comical adventures of an enterprising seven year old who launches countless projects and faces a series of dilemmas. Also,

Eddie and Gardenia, and Eddie's Pay Dirt.

Heyward, Du Bose and Flack, Marjorie, The County Bunny and the Little Gold Shoes.
An Easter story of a country bunny who wants to become one of the five Easter bunnies.

Kipling, Rudyard, Just So Stories.
Twelve stories of "the High and Far-Off Times" when whales had large throats, camels were humpless, leopards spottless, and man had no alphabet.

Lansing, E. H., Deer Mountain Hideaway.
Fred and Hank find several deer killed out of season and try to get the game warden to investigate. When he didn't come, the boys attempt to solve the crimes alone and become trapped in a cave.

Lawson, Robert, Rabbit Hill.
Beautifully illustrated story of the animal's adventures when a new family moves into the big house on the hill. Continued in Tough Winter.

Lindgren, Astrid, Pippi Longstocking.
Pippi lives alone although she is only nine. She does many other curious magical things, too, such as tying brushes to her feet and skating in suds to scrub a floor.

Leonnie, Leo, Frederick.
A story with a different twist to Aesop's fable of the grasshopper and the ant. A mouse does not store up food for the winter but entertains the other mice with his thoughts.

Lofting, Hugh, Doctor Doolittle.
Astonishing adventures of Dr. Doolittle, a kind-hearted doctor who can speak the language of all the animals.

McCloskey, Robert, Homer Price.
Hilarious story of a small-town boy and the predicaments he creates.

McCloskey, Robert, Lentil.
Because he knows he cannot sing or even whistle, Lentil learns to play the harmonica by practicing in the bathtub.

Milhouse, Katherine, The Egg Tree.
Kathy and Carl spend Easter with their cousins and their grandmother. While taking part in the Easter egg hunt, Kathy finds something special in the attic.

Milne, A. A., Winnie the Pooh.
The charming story of Christopher Robin and the adventures of his toy pets, Pooh, Piglet, and many others.

Rey, H. A., Curious George.
The escapades of a mischievous monkey on the loose. Continued in Curious George Takes a Job, Curious George Rides a Bike, Curious George

Flies a Kite, and Curious George Gets a Medal.

Robinson, Tom, Trigger John's Son.
A story of wiry boys too alive to be polite. They get into all kinds of trouble and are far from being all "sweetness and light." Similar to Tom Sawyer.

Travers, P. L., Mary Poppins.
A nursemaid blown in by an East wind takes four children on magical adventures.

White, E. B., Charlotte's Web.
The story of Wilber, the runt of a litter of pigs, who was raised by a little girl named Fern. His only friend in the barn is Charlotte, a spider who spins messages in her web. A favorite story.

White, E. B., Stuart Little.
The whimsical story of a boy no bigger than a mouse and looks just like one.

Wood, Ray, American Mother Goose.
American folk songs, children's rhymes, and nonsense jingles. American version of Mother Goose with definite sectional interests and values.

Grades 5 and 6

Arundel, Jocelyn, Simba of the White Mane.
The story of a mysterious lion that no hunter could kill.

Bontemps, Arna, Sad-Faced Boy.
The story of a trio of Alabama Boys, Slumber, Willie, and Rags who decide to go to Harlem.

Boston, Lucy Maria. The Children of Green Knowe.
Tolly comes to live with his great grandmother at the ancient house of Green Knowe. Her stories of the children who lived there in the 17th century help him to realize they are still there--Alexander, Toby and Lennett. Together they help to break the gypsy's curse on the house.

Brink, Carol Ryrie, Caddie Woodlawn.
The story of red-headed Caddie, the tomboy, her two brothers and their adventures in a frontier settlement in Wisconsin along about the Civil War period. An entertaining evolution of a tomboy.

Brown, John Mason, Daniel Boone.
An interesting biography of the early pioneer.

Burnford, Sheila E., The Incredible Journey.
The experiences of a Siamese cat, an old bull terrier, and a young Labrador Retriver who travel together 250 miles through the Canadian wilderness to find their family.

Carroll, Lewis, Alice's Adventures in Wonderland and Through the looking Glass.

Alice sees a rabbit take a watch out of his pocket, then, nor down a rabbit hole. When she follows him amazing and ridiculous things happen.

Carroll, Ruth and Latrobe. Beanie.
The adventures of a small boy and his puppy.

Chase, Richard, Ed., The Jack Tales.
Contains an American version of the story of Jack and the Beanstal., together with 27 other tales about the adventures of Jack, a poor Appalachian farm boy. These tales, told by R. M. Ward and his kindred in the Beech Mountain section of Western North Carolina and by other descendants of Council Harmon (1803-1896) elsewhere in the southern mountains; with 3 tales from Wise County, Virginia.

Collodi, Carol, Pinocchio.
The story of a wooden puppet who becomes a real live boy.

Farley, Walter, The Black Stallion.
A wild horse hiding on a desert island and the deep devotion between boy and horse.

Faulkner, Georgene and John Becker, Melindy s Medal.
When eight year old Melindy visits the segregated South, she faces problems because she is a Negro.

Felton, Harold W., John Henry and His Hammer.
Tall tale of the superman who helped to build the first railroads in America.

Ferris, Helen, Favorite Poems Old and New.
Varied collection of over 700 poems.

Fuller, Lois and Hamilton, Keo, the Cave Boy.
A boy's hunting adventures.

Gates, Doris, Little Vic.
Pony River, a Negro boy, believes Little Vic, a colt, will be as great as his sire, Man O'War.

Gipson, Fred, Old Yeller.
The story of Travis and a stray dog who attaches himself to the family living in Texas.

Hale, Lucretia, The Peterkin Papers.
Fantastically funny stories about a Victorian family's everyday problems and how they cope with them.

Norton, Mary, The Borrowers.
The borrowers are small creatures who live in old houses and take their names from the places they inhabit--the Overmantels, the Harpsichords and the Clocks. Borrowers cleverly borrow the things they need. When a borrower is seen, there is nothing for him to do but emigrate.

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Jackson, Jesse, Call Me Charley.
Charles is the only Negro boy in the neighborhood. He has some bitter disappointments but gradually wins the respect and friendship of some of the boys in his school.

Kastner, Erich, Emil and the Detectives.
German boys try to recover stolen money. Mystery and suspense.

Kipling, Rudyard, The Jungle Book.
Mowgli, a boy, is adopted by the wolf pack and taught the laws of the jungle by Bagheera, the panther, and Baloo, the bear.

Kjelgaard, Jim, Haunt Fox.
Star, the red fox, became so elusive about escaping traps and dogs that he became known as the "haunt fox."

Knight, Eric M., Lassie Come Home.
Lassie's 400 mile journey on foot to rejoin her master.

Kraybill, Joseph, And Now Miguel.
Miguel Chavez, the son of a New Mexican sheep raiser of Spanish descent, tells about the life and work of his family and of his secret wish to go on the hard sheep drive into the Sangre de Cristo Mountains.

Love, Katherine, A Pocketful of Rhymes.
An inviting little book of gay verses.

Lindquist, Willis, Burma Boy.
The story of Maji's search for the missing elephant he loves.

Malcomson, David, Yipe.
A popular dog story.

O'Brien, Jack, Silver Chief, Dog of the North.
Adventure story of a part husky and part wolf dog, a Canadian Mounted Policeman, and the great friendship that developed between them.

Pyle, Howard, Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood of Great Renown In Nottingham.
Some of the adventures of Robin Hood, the merry outlaw, who was kind to the poor and weak, but punished the strong and bad. Robin Hood also fought for King Richard-the-Lion-Hearted.

Renick, James and Marion, Tommy Carries the Ball.
A football story with diagrams of various plays.

Selden, George, The Cricket in Times Square.
A country cricket in Times Square, New York City.

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Selincourt, Jan de, Odysseus the Wanderer.
The adventures of Odysseus are retold for the younger reader. After many years of war and a victory over Troy, Odysseus and his men set sail for Ithaca. The journey is filled with many strange and wonderful adventures.

Spyri, Johanna, Heidi.
A Swiss girl is heartbroken when she is forced to leave her grandfather's home in the mountains to take care of a sick child in town.

Sterline, Dorothy, Mary Jane.
Mary Jane faces fully the violence that met the first Negro children to try out school integration in a segregated community.

Stevenson, R. L., Treasure Island.
The tale of Long John Silver, the pirate chief and the battle of strategy and wit between Long John Silver, his crew and the captain, the squire, the doctor, and Jim Hawkins.

Stewart, George R., To California by Covered Wagon.
The journal of a teen-ager who went on the trip.

Wilder, Laura Ingalls, Little House in the Big Woods.
Laura and her family live in a little log house in Wisconsin in the 1870's. The snow falls deep and wolves prowl, but the family is never lonely.

You will find additional lists of good "read-aloud" books in:

1. Eakin, May K., Ed., Good Books for Children, 3rd ed., Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1966.

2. Larrick, Nancy, A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960.

3. English Curriculum Guide, School District of Greenville County.

4. Rollins, Charlemae, We Build Together, 3rd., National Council of Teachers of English, Champaign, Ill., 1967.

5. Using the Media Center: Guidelines for Teachers and Media Specialists, School District of Greenville County, 1968, pp. 29-37.

INTEREST INVENTORY

ALL ABOUT ME

Name_____ Date_____

My Family

I have _____brothers and _____sisters.

My brothers are _____years old.

My sisters are _____years old.

I am _____years old.

My father and I like to _____

_____

My mother and I like to _____

_____

People and Things

I like to _____

_____

My best friend is _____

_____

I like (him, her) because _____

_____

I have a library card (yes--no). I go to the library on _____

I have _____books of my own at home. I read aloud to _____

_____. I like to read about _____

The best book, or story, I ever read was _____

I am a member of _____

My hobby is _____

The best time I ever had was _____

Movies--Radio--TV

I go to _____ movies each week. I like movies that _____

_____. I listen to _____radio programs daily. My

favorite radio program is _____.

I see _____TV programs each _____. My favorite TV

program is _____.

Things I Like and Dislike

At school I like _____

At school I do not like _____

I do not like _____

I like these things _____

I am afraid of these things _____

When I grow up I would like to be _____

This summer in the center I would like to _____

_____

My greatest difficulty in reading is _____

This summer my parents expect me to _____

I think my teacher _____

My parents think I should _____

My mother wants me to _____

My father does not think _____

My father believes I am _____

I feel left out when _____

My father and mother agree that I _____

These things make me angry _____

My family feels _____

_____

If I were not in the reading center, I would be _____

_____

I am embarrassed when _____

If I could have three wishes I would wish:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

SQ3R STUDY SKILLS FORMULA

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Steps in Textbook Study

Step 1 Survey — Look through the whole assignment. Read the headings if there are any. Read the summary if there is one. Try to get the general idea of the content of the whole lesson. Later you can piece the details into the framework which you have in mind, and the whole lesson will mean more to you.

Step 2 Question — Think of the questions which are likely to be answered in the lesson. Often the headings can be very easily turned into questions. Use them! If any heading does not tell you plainly what question is to be answered in that section, use this question: What does the author expect me to learn about (this topic) from studying this section? If there are no paragraph headings, skim the section quickly for the main ideas.

Step 3 Read — Study the lesson to find the answers to the questions, do not stop to read every word carefully; concentrate on finding the main point. You cannot remember all the facts you find, so you must look for the important ones, of which there will be only one or two for each section. Don't pick out too many. Do not try to memorize the facts at this point; just sort out the ones you need as you go along.

Study guide. Fold or rule a sheet of large-sized notebook paper lengthwise, down the middle. On the left list the topics discussed in the book. If there are paragraph headings in bold faced type, use them. If not, list the main ideas found in the preliminary survey. Leave space between topics.

When you have finished reading a section and picking out the one or two points to remember, list on the right the key words of the ideas or facts you have decided are most important for each topic. Do not do this until after you have read a section and thought about it. This is the most vital part of your studying, and you can't tell what is important until you have read all the facts.

Step 4 Recite — Go back over the lesson immediately. Cover the right hand side of your paper and check the headings on the left. Ask yourself: "Do I remember what this section was about?" or "Can I answer this question?" If you find that you cannot, you know that you must look at the key words, or even go back to the book if necessary, in order to restudy the particular part which you did not understand or have forgotten. Step 4 is very important. Giving yourself an immediate quiz on what you have just studied is the best possible way to prevent forgetting.

Practice until you can recite on the whole study guide without referring to the key words. Then, practice some more. This extra practice is what really pays off.

Step 5 — Some time later, and also before an examination, go back to your

Review headings and questions again and quiz yourself. Reread only those parts which you have forgotten. If you have taken steps 1, 2, 3 and 4 faithfully, you will find that you do not have too much to restudy.

TEACHING TECHNIQUES FOR OUTLINING

Sequence

Number the sentences to show the order in which they happened.

___Bill took a book off the shelf.

___Bill went to the bookshelf.

___Bill told the class what he has read.

___Bill read the book.

___The children put their hands over their hearts.

___The children stood on their feet.

___The children sang "God Bless America."

___The sang or said the pledge to the flag.

___Peter began to run.

___He told his father what he had seen.

___He was walking at night.

___He saw something white in the woods.

___Jerry's bike had rust all over it.

___Jerry painted his bike green.

___He went to the store to buy paint.

___Jerry's bicycle looks like new.

One-Point Outlines

After children have returned from a trip, list specific things they saw. Have them organize the list in one of these ways:

What they saw (chronological order)

Going to the farm
At the farm
Coming back to the school

Types of things they saw (classification)

Animals
Birds
Plants

Simple Outline

The Reindeer Roundup

I. Rounding up the Reindeer

A.

B.

C.

II. Corralling the Reindeer

A.

B.

III. Finding and caring for the fawn

A.

B.

C.

D.

Detailed Outline

A Standard System of Notation

I.

A.

1.

a.

A PROGRAM OF TRAINING IN OUTLINING

A more complete program of training in outlining would include the following steps:

Outlining Skills *

1. Group words under an appropriate given heading. Later practice same with children supplying the heading.
2. Group words under two headings.
3. Detect irrelevant words in a given classification.
4. Classify sentences under given heading.
5. Group words under three headings.
6. Arrange series of sentences as they appear in the reading material.
7. Arrange subtitles as in given material.
8. Arrange events in chronological order.
9. Select sentences that tell about the main idea.
10. Collect sentences bearing on a given question in a short selection.
11. Group such statements under one, two, or later, three headings.
12. Find subtopics in a paragraph.
13. Find subtopics in a longer selection.
14. Select main points to complete skeleton outline of given details.
15. Add main ideas and one or more subheadings to given skeleton outline.
16. Select main ideas for an outline.
17. Select main ideas and subheadings for an outline.
18. Outline more than one paragraph.
19. Organize notes from several sources under main ideas, subheadings, and details.

* George D. Spache and Evelyn B. Spache, Reading in the Elementary School. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1969. p. 294.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

1. Establish rapport with the child.

2. Record observation of child's behavior during the test.

3. Give word recognition test. Stop at 10 consecutive errors on the flash presentation. Where child misses one word on the flash presentation, start him one level below for the IRI.

4. Begin with oral reading at sight.
   a. Motivate the child by asking him questions without using any word in the selection.
   b. Have the child answer the question set up during the motivation.
   c. Record the child's errors during the oral reading.
   d. Check comprehension. Record every answer he gives.

5. Motivate child for silent reading. Repeat the above steps in #4.
   a. Record symptoms: head movement (H. M.): lip movement (L. M.); finger pointing (F. P.); and vocalization and subvocalization (S. V.).
   b. Check comprehension.

6. Give oral rereading selection. This is from the silent reading section.
   a. Record if child is able to skim. Record whether or not he can do it quickly.
   b. Place brackets around the passage he rereads.
   c. Purpose: to see if ORR improves over his oral reading at sight.

7. Continue the same procedure with every level of the IRI until the frustration level is attained.

8. Hearing capacity level:
   a. Administer at a later time. Do not administer immediately after reaching the frustration level.
   b. Read to the child at the next highest level.
   c. Check comprehension.
   d. Continue at each level until he scores below 75% comprehension.

9. Administration of Standardized Test--Check for grade equal to the basic instructional level of the IRI.

Qualitative Analysis

1. In the word recognition test:
   a. If child's placement is higher than first grade, if he has low scores on the flash words, and shows no improvement from F to U, be suspicious.
   b. In the untimed (U):
      (1) Does he know initial, medial or final syllables?
      (2) Does he have syllabication skills?
      (3) Can he continue word analysis skills as the materials become more difficult?

2. In the IRI:
   a. During the oral reading selection look for reversal tendencies, poor left to right propulsion.
      (1) If so, administer auditory and visual discrimination tests.
      (2) If speech is slurred, administer discussion tests.

   b. Compare WR in context (oral selection) and WR in isolation.
   c. Comprehension.
      (1) Check to see if errors are factual, vocabulary, or inferential ones.
      (2) What type of question is missed:
         (a) organizing
         (b) sequence
         (c) simple recall
         (d) colated details or broad general ideas
         (e) inferential: Low level or high level thinking
         (f) relies on experience

Criteria

	WR in context	Comprehension	Symptoms
Independent Level	99%	90%	No LM, FP, etc.
Immediate Instructional	Level at which child first shows difficulty in reading. Provide first instruction here.		
Basic Instructional Level Highest level at which child can profit from instruction.	95%	75%	No LM, FP, etc.
Frustration Level	90%	50%	LM, FP, HM withdrawal
Hearing Level		75%	

Evaluation

1. Intelligence Estimate:
   H. C. + 5.5 (5-6)

   Example: H. C. = 7
   +5-6
   12-6

   H. C. = Independent Developmental

2. Prognosis:
   $\frac{HC=9}{BI\ 3}$ $\frac{FL=8}{BI\ 3}$ $\frac{BI=7}{II\ 3}$

   The greater the span, the more favorable the prognosis.

   $\frac{ORR}{OR}$: improved--corrective
   not improved--remedial, associative learning difficulty.

SCORING PROCEDURES

1. Standardized Tests

_____ Correct _____ Incorrect

2. Word Recognition Tests

Stimulus	Flash	Untimed
red	✓	
no	on	✓
was	✓	
come	o	✓

3. Informal Reading Inventory

Errors computed: omissions, substitutions, insertions, words given by the examiner.

Example

1. Examiner had to supply a word (encircle word).
2. Pause--one line per second (slant lines).
3. Repetition (underline words repeated).
4. Substitutions (cross out word and write substitutions above word).
5. Punctuation ignored (encircle).
6. Omission (cross out word).
7. Insertion (use caret and write word above).

	Word Recognition	Comprehension	Symptoms of Difficulty
Independent	99%	90%	None
Instructional	95%	75%	None
Frustration	90%	50%	Yes

INFORMAL WORD RECOGNITION INVENTORY

Name _____ Age ___ Grade ___ Date _____

	Pre-Primer	Flash	Untimed		Primer	Flash	Untimed
1.	to	_____	_____	1.	do	_____	_____
2.	I	_____	_____	2.	was	_____	_____
3.	see	_____	_____	3.	are	_____	_____
4.	come	_____	_____	4.	too	_____	_____
5.	and	_____	_____	5.	out	_____	_____
6.	like	_____	_____	6.	children	_____	_____
7.	the	_____	_____	7.	what	_____	_____
8.	a	_____	_____	8.	happy	_____	_____
9.	can	_____	_____	9.	no	_____	_____
10.	did	_____	_____	10.	surprise	_____	_____
11.	he	_____	_____	11.	going	_____	_____
12.	in	_____	_____	12.	basket	_____	_____
13.	down	_____	_____	13.	now	_____	_____
14.	here	_____	_____	14.	laughed	_____	_____
15.	is	_____	_____	15.	pretty	_____	_____
16.	said	_____	_____	16.	into	_____	_____
17.	stop	_____	_____	17.	give	_____	_____
18.	you	_____	_____	18.	noise	_____	_____
19.	up	_____	_____	19.	one	_____	_____
20.	little	_____	_____	20.	day	_____	_____

Name _____ Age ____ Grade _____ Date _____

	First-Reader Level	Flash	Untimed		Second Reader (level 2-1)	Flash	Untimed
1.	know	_____	_____	1.	milk	_____	_____
2.	trunk	_____	_____	2.	dress	_____	_____
3.	could	_____	_____	3.	almost	_____	_____
4.	stop	_____	_____	4.	cannot	_____	_____
5.	when	_____	_____	5.	spot	_____	_____
6.	their	_____	_____	6.	busy	_____	_____
7.	time	_____	_____	7.	hardly	_____	_____
8.	morning	_____	_____	8.	clothes	_____	_____
9.	another	_____	_____	9.	gone	_____	_____
10.	answered	_____	_____	10.	anything	_____	_____
11.	other	_____	_____	11.	peaches	_____	_____
12.	turn	_____	_____	12.	wash	_____	_____
13.	old	_____	_____	13.	pictures	_____	_____
14.	neighbors	_____	_____	14.	family	_____	_____
15.	ground	_____	_____	15.	upon	_____	_____
16.	from	_____	_____	16.	remember	_____	_____
17.	night	_____	_____	17.	woman	_____	_____
18.	splash	_____	_____	18.	nose	_____	_____
19.	very	_____	_____	19.	does	_____	_____
20.	white	_____	_____	20.	knew	_____	_____

Name _____ Age ___ Grade _____ Date _____

Second (level 2-2) Reader	Flash	Untimed	Third (level 3-1) Reader	Flash	Untimed
1. oranges			1. months		
2. listen			2. shoot		
3. year			3. fasten		
4. sometimes			4. either		
5. against			5. loved		
6. farmer			6. sour		
7. tease			7. hurried		
8. which			8. prairies		
9. minute			9. third		
10. lose			10. untied		
11. nothing			11. exclaimed		
12. replied			12. lodge		
13. Grandfather			13. bowls		
14. string			14. trousers		
15. worms			15. thread		
16. terrible			16. birch		
17. quietly			17. moccasins		
18. scratched			18. frightened		
19. visit			19. journey		
20. anyone			20. course		

Name _____ Age ___ Grade ___ Date _____

Third (level 3-2) Reader	Flash	Untimed	Fourth Reader	Flash	Untimed
1. pencils			1. doctor		
2. praise			2. agreed		
3. lie			3. married		
4. grocery			4. dozen		
5. usual			5. silence		
6. pleasant			6. engine		
7. pointed			7. least		
8. apron			8. mechanic		
9. separate			9. sweater		
10. shelves			10. costumes		
11. dangerous			11. braided		
12. grown			12. aboard		
13. station			13. errands		
14. difficulty			14. except		
15. perhaps			15. describe		
16. teacher			16. especial		
17. creatures			17. exactly		
18. whistling			18. famous		
19. stories			19. poison		
20. Christmas			20. beneath		

Name _____ Age _____ Grade _____ Date _____

Fifth Reader		Flash	Untimed	Sixth Reader		Flash	Untimed
1.	anvil			1.	chords		
2.	centuries			2.	advice		
3.	especially			3.	leagues		
4.	accident			4.	stadium		
5.	chemical			5.	destiny		
6.	cylinder			6.	medicines		
7.	showers			7.	crisis		
8.	opportunity			8.	poised		
9.	artist			9.	curiosity		
10.	dining			10.	plateau		
11.	throat			11.	actually		
12.	aisle			12.	diameter		
13.	pleasure			13.	camera		
14.	arched			14.	sirens		
15.	forlorn			15.	structures		
16.	hovered			16.	similar		
17.	waist			17.	bulletins		
18.	mosture			18.	numerous		
19.	erosion			19.	minstrel		
20.	clumsy			20.	jealous		

INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

(Lyons and Carnahan Developmental Reading Series)

Third Pre-Primer: Fun With Us, p. 49

Motivation--1. Do you know what a playhouse is?

2. Did you ever play in a playhouse?

3. In this story Jane is talking to her mother and is showing her a picture of something she wants very much. Let's read the story to find out what it is that Jane wants.

Oral Reading--(33 words)

Jane came to Mother.

She said, "Look, Mother.

Did you see the playhouse?

I want a playhouse.

Can Daddy make it for me?"

Mother liked the playhouse.

She said, "Daddy can make it."

Comprehension

1. To whom did Jane come? (Mother)

2. What did Jane want? (Playhouse)

3. How did Mother feel about the picture of the playhouse? (She liked it.)

4. What did Jane want Daddy to do? (make the playhouse)

5. What are three things that one would need to build a playhouse? (saw, hammer, lumber, boards, nails, window-panes, hinges, doorknob)

Primer: Many Surprises, p. 78

Motivation--1. Did you ever go on a picnic with your family?

2. What do you like best about a picnic?

3. This is a story of a family going on a picnic. Read to find out what happens on the picnic.

Oral Reading--(99 words)

In The Park

"Here we are," said Daddy.

"This is the park."

"I want the basket," said Mother.

"I will get the lunch ready."

Billy looked at the slide.

"I want to go fast on a slide," he said.

Ann and Jane got on the seesaw.

Billy saw the ice cream man.

"Here comes the ice cream man," he said.

"May we have some ice cream for lunch?"

"Yes," said Daddy.

"Good, good!" said Jane.

"We have ice cream and cake.

This is a good picnic lunch.

It is like a birthday party."

Comprehension

1. Where did this family go on a picnic? (park)
2. What did Mother do on the picnic? (get lunch ready)
3. What did Billy want to play on? (slide)
4. Why did he like the slide so well? (liked to go fast on the slide)
5. What did Ann and Jane play on? (seesaw)
6. Whom did Billy see? (ice cream man)
7. Why did Jane think it was a good picnic lunch? (had ice cream and cake)

8. What did Jane say this picnic was like? (birthday party)

9. In what way was it not like a birthday party? (no presents)

First Reader: Happy Times, p. 124

Motivation--This is a story about a bear. Have you ever seen a bear? Was it in the summer or the winter? Bears have to get ready for winter. Read this story to find out how the bear prepared for winter.

Oral Reading--(100 words)

Winter is Coming

The animals in the big woods know when winter is coming.
They know that cold days will come soon.
They look for winter homes.
A bear lived in the big woods.
The bear did not like winter.
She did not want to be cold.
She wanted a good winter home.

The bear saw an old tree on the ground.
She began to get it ready for a winter home.
She got some good grass.
She pushed it into the tree and made her winter home.
Then, she got in, too.
The bear was ready for the cold.

Comprehension

1. (a) What season of the year do you think this was? (fall, autumn)

   (b) Why do you think so? (the animals were looking for winter homes)

2. What did the bear want? (a winter home)

3. Why did the bear want a winter home? (she did not want to be cold)

4. How did the bear make a home? (pushed old grass into an old tree)

5. Where was the old tree? (lying on the ground)

6. When would the bear sleep? (all winter)

Second Reader (2-1): Down Our Way, p. 80

Motivation--1. Have you ever seen a building burning?

2. What do you think you would do first if you saw a burning building?

3. This is a story about a big fire. Read it to find out what happened.

Oral Reading--(103 words)

"Fire! The big market is on fire!" shouted a man. "Call the firemen!"

The people at the market began to carry out their things. Out came people with fresh vegetables and fruits and other foods. Out came others with boxes full of bottles of milk.

Before long, a big red fire truck came to the fire. Some firemen got on a large machine. They used the machine to throw water on the fire.

"Hurrah for the firemen!" shouted the people.

One of the firemen waved his hand.

"This is not very much of a fire," he said. "We will have this fire out soon."

Comprehension

1. What is on fire? (big market)

2. How do you know the man was excited? (shouted)

3. What did the people carry out of the market? (fresh vegetables, fruits, other foods, milk)

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4. What soon came to the fire? (fire truck)

5. What did the firemen do? (threw water on the fire)

6. How did the people feel after the fire was put out? (happy, glad)

7. Why is the fireman our friend? (answers will vary)

Second Reader (2-2): Just For Fun, p. 51

Motivation--1. Did you every ride through the country and see a live turkey strutting around?

2. Where else have you seen a turkey?

3. This is a story about a live turkey on a farm that goes out to build her nest. Read the story to find out where she built her nest.

Oral Reading--(109 words)

One day the turkey hen went out to find a place to make her nest. She went a long way to find a place, and she took a long time to do it.

At last she found a good place. No one would ever know where she made that nest.

When turkey hen came back, she walked with her head in the air. She was very proud. She hardly looked at Gray Goose or White Duck or Brown Hen.

"I have fooled them" she thought.

Then she said,

"They may go to the East,

and may go to the West,

They will never be able

to find my nest."

Comprehension

1. What did the turkey hen go to find?

2. Why did she think she had found a good place? (thought no one

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would know where her nest was)

3. How did she show she was proud? (walked with her head in the air)

4. What does proud mean? (haughty, "stuck-up")

5. What friends did she meet when she returned from making her nest?

6. What questions do you think these friends asked Turkey Hen? (Where have you been? Where is your nest?)

7. Why do you think these friends may have been curious as to where Turkey Hen built her nest? (Answers will vary)

8. Do you know where Turkey Hen built her nest? (no, but a long way)

9. What is the difference in a turkey hen and a turkey gobbler? (turkey hen is a girl turkey and a gobbler is a boy turkey)

Third Reader (3-1): Stories From Everywhere, p. 86

Motivation--1. Have you ever been excited about going on a trip?

2. This is a story about a little Indian boy who went on a trip. Read to find out why he was going on this trip.

Oral Reading--(105 words)

Little Deer's village was on the wide plains. These Indians needed buffaloes for food and clothes and for many other things. When the buffaloes moved to a new place on the plains, the Indians also moved.

Little Deer ran to tell his mother that they were to go buffalo hunting.

"Good, we are in need of meat and we need skins," she said.

The next morning Little Deer was up as soon as it was light. He must help his mother take down their house, or tepee, as they called it. These Plains Indians moved so often that tepees had to be easy to move.

Comprehension

1. Where did these Indians live? (on the plains)

2. Where was this tribe of Indians going? (buffalo hunting)

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3. Why did Indians move their homes when they went buffalo hunting? (they followed the buffaloes)

4. How do you think Little Deer felt when he heard the Indians were to move? (excited, happy)

5. Why did the Indians need buffaloes? (food, clothes, skin for tepees)

6. What did these Indians call their homes? (tepees)

Third Reader (3-2): Once Upon a Storytime, p. 85

Motivation--1. Have you ever seen a seal? Where was he?

2. Could he do any tricks?

3. This story is about a seal who was tired of doing tricks. Read to find out what he wanted to do.

Oral Reading--(97 words)

"I'm tired of doing tricks with balls," said Oscar, the big seal, to Mr. Brown.

"I need a rest."

"Now be reasonable," said Mr. Brown. "We have to give two shows a day. Tell me, Oscar, why are you tired of doing tricks?"

"Well, because I have to stand so very still while I'm holding things on my nose," Oscar replied. "I would like to get out and swish around these fine days."

"Oh," said Mr. Brown. "You don't need a rest. What you want is more exercise."

"I could skate," said Oscar, "but there is no ice."

Comprehension

1. Why did Oscar think he needed a rest? (tired of doing tricks with balls)

2. Why do you think Mr. Brown wanted Oscar to be reasonable? (had two shows a day and Mr. Brown made money from Oscar's tricks)

3. Why was Oscar tired of his tricks? (he had to stand so very still while holding things on his nose)

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4. What did Oscar want to do? (get out and swish around)

5. How do you know it was not winter? (there was no ice for skating)

Fourth Reader: Meeting New Friends, p. 132

Motivation--Have you ever heard of the name Goodyear? (Discuss a little about tires). Read this story to learn of a discovery that Charles Goodyear accidentally made.

Oral Reading--(120 words)

Goodyear started to put the bit of rubber in his friend's hand, but dropped it on the stove.

"Well," he cried, "I guess that piece of rubber is ruined. If there is one thing I have learned, it is that heat ruins rubber."

He took from the red hot stove top the rubber that he thought had been ruined. He looked at the rubber very closely. He fingered it, pulled it, and pressed it.

Then, Charles Goodyear began shouting, "I have it! I have the secret at last! Now I can make rubber that will not melt. Look! Look!"

The friend looked at the piece of rubber which Goodyear held in his hand. It was the rubber that had fallen on the hot stove.

Comprehension

1. What had happened to the rubber? (was dropped on the stove)

2. What did Goodyear do after the accident? (took the rubber from the top of the stove)

3. Was it possible for a stove to be red hot? (Yes, in those days it was. Iron stoves were often used.)

4. Why was Goodyear amazed when he took the rubber from the top of the stove? (it had not melted)

5. What secret had been found? (how to make rubber that wouldn't melt when hot)

6. Was the discovery really an accident? (No. Goodyear's knowledge and alertness of observation had much to do with the discovery.)

Fifth Reader: Days of Adventure, p. 87

Motivation--1. Have you read any stories about explorers?

2. Have you read about Champlain, the French explorer?

3. Read this story to find out how Champlain went exploring in the New World.

Oral Reading--(102 words)

In 1608, Champlain's settlement at Quebec was begun. During the first winter there was much hardship and many colonists were ill. When the second winter came, there was more food and less sickness. The Quebec colony was not going to fail.

With Indian guides Champlain traveled west and southwest to explore New France and to look for a passage to China and India. Canoes were paddled through many streams. Sometimes the canoes had to be carried from one stream to another so a journey could continue. The trips were very difficult for Champlain and for the dark robed missionaries who traveled with him.

Comprehension

1. Where was the New French settlement? (Quebec)

2. In what present day country is that located? (Canada)

3. How do you know that the second winter was less harsh than the first one? (had more food and less sickness)

4. In which directions did Champlain go exploring? (west and southwest from Quebec)

5. For what purpose did he explore the region? (looking for a passage to China and India)

6. Why do you think they had to carry their canoes from one stream to another? (perhaps waterfalls, rocky, etc.)

7. Who went exploring with Champlain? (Indian guides and missionaries)

8. Why do you think missionaries were interested in going exploring? (take Christianity to Indians that might be in that area)

Sixth Reader: Stories to Remember, p. 169

Motivation--This is the story of a man who got the idea of how he could help people in remote (explain) villages in the winter. Read to find out what this idea was.

Oral Reading--(112 words)

Outside of Hangtown there was a long mountain slope. To this slope Thompson took his heavy, but efficient, snow shoes. There, for several days, he practiced using them. At first he was awkward, but he learned quickly. Soon he could swoop down the snowy incline safely, then, climb to the top again without breaking through the crust.

He used a guide pole; but instead of straddling it or dragging it beside him, as most snow shoers do in their descent on a steep mountain, he held it in front of him, as a tightrope walker holds a pole. He was practicing so he could take the mail over the mountain to remote villages.

Comprehension

1. Where did this story take place? (outside of Hangtown)
2. What season was it? (winter)
3. What was Thompson learning to do? (to ski well on his snow shoes)
4. What was his skiing difficult from that of other skiers? (held his guide pole in front of him)
5. Why would this be necessary if he were going to ski over the mountains with the mail? (to serve as a balance to the mail that was on his back)
6. What kind of snow was necessary before he could take trips? (snow with a crust)

Seventh Reader: A Call to Adventure, p. 320

Motivation: Do you have any idea as to what a story could be about with the title "Jingle Town"?

Oral Reading--(274 words)

Jingle Town

A way to discover the solid foundation roots of this country of ours is to turn off the main highway and drive slowly down any country road until you come to a village. A small one nestled around a town square or a church is best. Such a village is Bell Town.

There are no real streets in Bell Town. The houses simply grew up by the sides of roads that wound around and over the steep, wooded hills. There are fine old revolutionary styled homes and shingled Cape Cod houses, all in shipshape repair. From a vantage point on a towering hill one can see a homey and beautiful scene--the water towers of industrial plants, neat houses among the trees, and the chalk white church beside the village green.

At the top of the hill sits the two hundred year old comfortable looking house of William Barton. In 1808, William Barton started the first foundry in the United States for making bells only--sleight bells and handbells. Bell Town now makes more bells than any other town, regardless of size, in the world. It makes fire bells, sleigh bells, bell toys and all kinds of small bells.

At the bottom of the hill on a cinder lane there is a group of red buildings from which comes a mixture of jingles, jangles, hammerings, and the hum of machinery and lathes. In this foundry are numerous rows of huge tables covered with mountains of shining bicycle bells. There are approximately eighteen million people in the United States who ride bicycles, so that makes quite a market for bells.

Comprehension

1. Why is this village called Bell Town? (site of the first foundry for making bells--at present, makes more bells than any town in world)

2. How can one discover the solid foundation roots of our country? (by visiting the small towns located off the main highways, etc.)

3. In what part of the United States would you say Bell Town is located? (New England--Cape Cod houses)

4. (a) Who was the first maker of bells in Bell Town? (William Barton)
   (b) When was his foundry started? (1808)

5. Can you name at least five different kinds of bells made in Bell Town? (fire bells, sleigh bells, ships' bells, doorbells,

cowbells, bicycle bells, bell toys, small bells)

6. Is "Jingle Town" an appropriate title for this story?
(Accept any reasonable answer)

Checklist of Difficulties in Basic Reading Skills

Name _____ Grade _____ Date _____

I. Vocabulary Skills

A. Word Recognition
____1. Has limited sight vocabulary
____2. Omits words
____3. Adds words
____4. Substitutes words
____5. Depends on configuration clues
____6. Does not use context clues
____7. Depends too heavily on context clues
____8. Reverses words

B. Word Analysis
____1. Does not look for recognizable parts
____2. Uses only initial attack
____3. Omits endings
____4. Makes errors on medial vowels
____5. No phonic skills
____6. Structure skills lacking

C. Speaking Vocabulary
____1. Has limited speaking vocabulary
____2.

II. Phrasing Fluency
____1. Ignores punctuation
____2. Reads word by word
____3. Habitually repeats words or phrases
____4. Reads too slowly, ploddingly
____5. Reads too fast, carelessly

III. Motor Skills

A. Ocular Skills
____1. Loses place easily
____2. Points
____3. Moves head
____4. Limited eye-voice span

B. Speech
____1. Enunciates poorly
____2. Stammers
____3. Voice too weak
____4. Voice too loud
____5. Vocalizes while reading silently

IV. General Observation
____1. Does not understand, but "reads" fluently
____2. Does not show interest in reading
____3. Is not accurate in interpretation

____4. Reads too literally
____5. Grasps details, misses main points
____6. Exhibits poor work habits

APPENDIX C

BASIC READING SKILLS LIST

The "Basic Reading Skils List" written by Walter B. Barbe and found in his book Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction was purchased from Prentice-Hall, Inc., for the purpose of including it in this guide.

The "Basic Reading Skills List" is a graded list--readiness through sixth grade.

The checklist is located in the back of this notebook.

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